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EDITED BY J. D. DE BOW.

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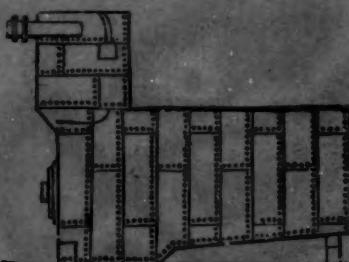
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DE BOW'S REVIEW.

JULY, 1858.

ART. I.—DIRECT TAXATION AND FREE TRADE.

We have on several occasions referred to the subject of Direct Taxation, and indicated the many considerations which should induce the adoption of that system of revenue in our country.

When Mr. Boyce, of South Carolina, made a movement in Congress for the appointment of a Special Committee to analyse and report upon the expenditures of the Government, and to propose a plan of reform, we heralded it with gratulation, and offered him the right hand of fellowship in his labors.

The result of the investigation so far has been communicated to the country, in a report, exhibiting great research and ability, and which has been received with marked attention and favor in the North and the South. It is our belief that Col. Boyce has inaugurated a movement the effects of which will be felt in the future financial policy of the Government. It will interest our readers to have the report, and we give it to them without omitting a line.—EDITOR.

The expenditures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1857, independent of the public debt, as appears from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, are \$65,082,597 76.

The first question is, whether those expenditures are greater than what they should be under an economical administration of the government. We think they are. The best mode of determining this question is to compare the present total expenditures of the government with the total expenditures of the government at some past period of our history, and, further, to compare some of the leading items of our expenditure now with the leading items of our expenditure then. With this view, we have compared the receipts and expenditures of 1857 with 1823, the result of which appears by the following statement:

Year.	Population.	Receipts.	Receipts, ^{per} ₁₈₅₀ ratio, as to population.	Expenditures.	Expenditures, ^{per} ₁₈₅₀ ratio, as to population.	Military expenditures.	Naval expenditures.
1823.....	10,606,540	\$20,540,666	\$1 98.66	\$0,784,154	\$0 94.24	\$3,096,924	\$2,503,765
1857.....	38,500,000	68,969,213	1 41.99	60,082,559	2 28.18	19,159,150	12,651,694
Inc. of 1857 over 1823	17,503,460	\$48,428,546	48.38	55,248,405	1 55.94	16,062,296	10,147,028

If space would permit, the contrast might be carried into many other items of expenditure, and the results would be startling. But enough has been done to show that the ratio of expenditure is far in excess of the increase of population. The expenditures ought not, for very obvious reasons, to increase in proportion to the increase of population. But conceding that it should, the expenditures of the government, in round numbers, should not exceed \$28,000,000; whereas it is \$65,032,559 76—an excess of \$37,032,559 76. This result is sufficiently striking, but it is rendered much more so when we consider two important facts: 1st. That 6,196,000 acres of the public land were granted during the last fiscal year for railroad purposes, which may be valued at \$15,490,000, being at the rate of \$2 50 per acre. 2d. That appropriations to supply the deficiencies of the last fiscal year have been called for, amounting, in round numbers, to \$10,000,000, making the total expenditures of the government, in round numbers, for the last fiscal year, \$90,000,000!—an excess over the ratio of expenditures in 1823 of \$62,000,000. The administration of the government in 1823 was not considered peculiarly economical; on the contrary, it was pronounced at the time by some as extravagant, and really was much more so than the first term of Mr. Jefferson's administration. For a further illustration of the increased expenditures of the government, see exhibit A, at the end of the report.

Considering as established the proposition that the expenditures of the government are far in excess of what they should be, we pass on to consider the remedy, if remedy there be, for this lavish waste of the public money.

What is the remedy for this vast and increasing expenditure? The only remedy likely, in any degree, to be effectual, is to change the existing system of taxation. The regular increase of our expenditures shows that it is not attributable to any particular party or administration, for this increase has gone on constantly under every party and every administration, with the regularity of a great principle. To make an individual a prodigal, you have only to supply him with an unlimited amount of money; to make a government extravagant, you have only to do the same thing. The first economical defect of our present system of taxation, by duties on imports, is, that it operates as a bounty to one, and that a very important class—the manufacturers.

Under the operation of this first defect, the great manufacturing class, which represents a vast capital, which is intensely alive to its peculiar interest, which is vigilant, active, powerful, and capable of prompt and ready combination, is

interested in increasing the taxation of the government; for the higher the taxes are, if laid on the principle of protecting their products, the better for them. Suppose the question were submitted to the cotton manufacturers, or the iron manufacturers, whether the duties on cotton and iron products should be increased or diminished, does any one doubt what their answer would be? So far as they are concerned, they consider high duties as bounties to them, and they would be in favor of them, if the revenues thereby derived were thrown into the sea. Under the present system of taxation by duties on imports, this great class are favorable to high taxation. To form some idea of the stupendous magnitude of this manufacturing interest, take the following statement, showing the value of the products of manufacture of the United States for the year 1850.—(Financial Report, Executive Document, 3d Sess. 34th Congress, vol. 2, 1856-'57, page 166.)

Statement showing the manufactures of the United States and Territories for the year 1850.

Manufactures of cotton.....	\$61,869,184 00
Manufactures of wool.....	43,207,545 00
Manufactures of pig iron.....	12,748,727 00
Manufactures of iron castings.....	25,108,155 00
Manufactures of iron wrought.....	22,628,771 00
Breweries and distilleries.....	18,213,681 00
Product of the fisheries.....	10,000,182 00
Product of salt manufactures.....	2,222,745 00
Manufactures produced in families.....	27,493,644 00
All other manufactures.....	832,103,265 00

Total value of products of manufactures..... \$1,055,595,899 00

This reference to the products of manufactures may give us some idea of the immense capital engaged in manufactures. This capital may be estimated at \$500,000,000.

This vast capital is all more or less interested in high duties—that is, in high taxation. The influence of the manufacturing class on taxation is not merely in proportion to the capital they represent, as compared with the capital engaged in other industrial pursuits; for, from very obvious reasons, some of which have already been incidently alluded to, it is far beyond this ratio. As an illustration of this influence, we would refer to the facts connected with the modification of the tariff during the last Congress. It is notorious that the only great interest represented here at that time by outside agents was the manufacturing interest. One of the first steps towards an economical administration of the government is to place that great and active interest permanently on the side of low taxation, and the only effectual mode of doing this is direct taxation; which necessarily implies the total abandonment of protective duties, which are but another name for bounties.

When you have put all the great interests of capital on the side of low taxes, you have taken one of the most decided steps that you can possibly take in favor of low taxation, which is the necessary antecedent of economy.

The next prominent evil of the present system of taxation, is that, by its indirect operation, the people are ignorant of what they pay—they are ignorant of what they pay to the government, and equally ignorant of what they pay to the protected interests in the shape of bounties. If the object be to obtain from the people the largest amount possible without arousing them, then the indirect system—the present system—is the best; but if the object be only to obtain from them the least amount that will suffice for the just wants of the government, then the direct system of taxation is the best. The happy ignorance of the people of the United States as to the amount of taxes they are paying is one great cause of their remaining so passive under the enormous increase of our expenditures which has been going on for years. If we desire an economical government, we must be candid with the people, and let each one know exactly what he pays. The people, ignorant of how much tax they are paying in the enhanced price of commodities, will tolerate an expenditure of \$100,000,000 much more patiently than one of \$50,000,000, when each one has to pay his ascertained share directly from his own pocket. Economy here must be preceded by vigilance among the constituency; as long as the constituency are indifferent on this subject, the representatives will be carried along unresisting in the vortex of extravagance.

Another objection to the present system is the large expenditure necessary in the present mode of collecting the revenue, in paying the army of employés engaged in the present revenue service, in building costly structures in various parts of the United States, and in maintaining custom-houses which do not pay their own expenses. Upon this point we would call attention to the following facts: The direct cost of collecting the revenue from customs for the last fiscal year, ending June 30, 1857, \$64,171,034 05, was \$3,552,359 50, employing three thousand and eighty-eight officers. This is independent of the cost of the custom-houses and revenue cutters, the interest upon which investment would largely increase this sum.

To see further the operation of the present system, take the following statement:

*Amount of revenue collected, and expenditures at certain custom-houses,
for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1857.*

Location.	Revenue collected.	Expenditures.	Excess of expenditure over revenue.
Belfast, Maine.....	\$5,052 05	\$6,012 87	\$960 82
Waldoboro', Maine.....	1,368 02	7,547 14	6,179 12
Wiscasset, Maine	180 93	7,359 09	7,228 16
Burlington, Vermont.....	8,581 70	16,285 47	7,703 77
Barnstable, Massachusetts.....	1,462 75	11,953 20	10,490 55
Sandusky, Ohio.....	567 84	4,372 66	3,804 82
Elsworth, Maine.....	954 96	5,032 09	4,077 13
Portsmouth, New Hampshire....	5,530 54	10,984 49	5,453 95
Buffalo, New York.....	10,140 53	16,896 51	6,755 98
Oswego, New York.....	6,149 09	18,214 58	12,065 49
Newark, New Jersey.....	384 30	1,595 55	1,212 55
Pensacola, Florida.....	478 73	3,012 62	2,533 89
Perth Amboy, New Jersey.....	1,531 73	4,471 79	2,940 06
Astoria, Oregon.....	4,173 64	21,254 51	17,080 87
Machias, Maine.....	608 71	2,605 72	1,997 01
Plymouth, Massachusetts.....	395 12	3,216 04	2,820 92
Bridgeport, Connecticut.....	805 44	1,766 24	960 80
Annapolis, Maryland.....	180 75	929 20	748 45
Peoria, Illinois.....	210 20	363 60	153 40

The total net revenue from the following eighteen custom-houses for last fiscal year, viz: Belfast, Bath, Bangor, Portland, Waldoboro', Wiscasset, Burlington, Barnstable, Gloucester, Bristol, Providence, Plattsburg, Wilmington, Del., Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Sandusky, Toledo, and San Francisco, was \$1,769,163 43. The total cost of the public buildings in those places for custom-houses, post offices, and court-rooms finished since 1850, is \$2,443,776 94. The total expenditure incurred for the last fiscal year in collecting said net income of \$1,769,163 43 was \$567,839 02.

Another defect of the present system is the immense patronage it gives to the Federal Government. This army of officers might by each State paying over its assessed quota, be almost entirely dispensed with. Instead of three thousand and eighty-eight employés now in the revenue system, we need, under a different system, have no more than one treasurer in each State. Another prominent defect of the present system is its necessary inequality; for no tariff can be constructed that does not, in a greater or less degree, operate as a bounty on one portion of the community and as a double tax on the great class of consumers. It requires no argument to prove that in a republic there should be equality in taxation; the Constitution attempts to accomplish this purpose in declaring that "all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States." But every tariff, in a greater or less degree, must necessarily violate the spirit of this provision. Another defect of the present system is, that it necessarily cripples the productive energies of the country by in-

terposing obstacles to the free exchange of products. It is difficult to estimate the extent of loss resulting from this cause ; but there can be no doubt it amounts to a vast sum. This tax on exchanges is a great obstacle to the highest development of our industrial resources. To form some idea of the loss occasioned to the country by the obstacles interposed to free exchanges by the tariff system, take the following estimate : In 1856 the cotton, woolen, and iron manufactures and sugar produced and consumed in the United States were enhanced in price by the tariff \$39,975,985. This was the amount of the indirect tax paid to the home producers of the above articles. In 1846 the Secretary of the Treasury estimated the indirect tax then paid on the enhanced prices of home products, caused by the tariff, at \$50,000,000. To be within moderate limits, we have reduced the estimate to \$30,000,000. In 1832 it was estimated that the amount of indirect tax paid up to that time to the home producers of protected products was \$240,000,000. Starting with that estimate, and putting the amount to this indirect tax down to only \$30,000,000 per annum since that time, we have, in round numbers, up to the present time, as the total amount of the indirect tax, \$1,000,000,000, which the consumers of the United States have had to pay for the luxury of persisting in an industrial blunder.

As regards the navigation laws, we do not think it necessary to go into a detailed examination of their various provisions, especially as a bill has been reported to the House, and is now before it, from one of the standing committees, for the purpose of perfecting the details of the present code of navigation laws. In general terms, however, we would say that the present regulations are unnecessarily complex, and might, with great advantage, be simplified. There are, however, several defects in principle, as we conceive, in the navigation laws, to which we propose to call attention ; those defects are as follows :

1. The requisition that American vessels engaged in the coasting trade should pay 50 cents per ton, unless "three-fourths of the crew are American citizens, then only 6 cents per ton;" and the further provision that American vessels, entering from foreign ports, to pay 50 cents per ton unless "the officers and two-thirds of the crew are American citizens."

2. The exclusion of foreign built vessels, though owned by American citizens, from engaging, with entire equality, in the coasting and other trade of the United States.

3. The entire exclusion of foreign vessels, owned by foreigners, from the coasting trade.

The object of the requisition that a certain proportion of the crews of American vessels should be Americans, was, no doubt, intended to accomplish a political purpose, eminently proper in itself, to provide an American marine in time of war. We find no fault with the motive, but we think this provision, which operates frequently as a great practical inconvenience, is unnecessary. The occupation of a sea-faring life should be left, like all other employments, to the inclinations or interests of the people. If it is to the interests of our population that they should go to sea, they will do so; otherwise, we should not endeavor to compel them. There is no danger that we should suffer in case of war from repealing this provision. That patriotic class of our citizens who have, on all occasions, honorably sustained the glory of our flag on the sea, do not take their inspiration from this provision. We have no fear but that, with or without this provision, there will be always the material out of which to organize a warlike marine, necessary to the wants of the country, under the most trying circumstances that can arise. Even with this provision a large per centage, 45 or 50 per cent., of our sea-faring men are foreigners. This provision, then, operates only as an unnecessary burden on the country during peace, without promising any adequate compensating result in time of war. Further, it may admit of grave consideration whether we would not strengthen ourselves, in case of war, by encouraging foreign sailors to come into our marine, as, once entered, they become, for all practical purposes, American sailors. Advancing firmly in the line of industrial freedom, and with a view of throwing off every possible shackle on the industrial energies of the country, we think this provision should be rescinded.

As regards the second defect alluded to in the law, by which foreign built vessels, though owned by American citizens, are not admitted to entire equality, unless purchased after shipwreck, and repaired to the extent of three-fourths of their cost, we consider this rests upon a totally indefensible principle. It is giving to American ship-builders a perfect monopoly. We can see no ground of justice upon which this monopoly can rest. Every American citizen ought to have the privilege to buy ships wherever he can buy them to the best advantage. To compel him to buy from American ship-builders at an enhanced price is, to the extent of that enhanced price, to confiscate his property, and transfer it to another. Such a monopoly is utterly inconsistent with the spirit of our institutions. Our ship-builders have a right to equality; they have no right to exclusive privileges. As a question of expediency, it seems equally indefensible. Either

American built ships are cheaper or dearer than foreign built. If they are cheaper, they do not need this prohibition of foreign purchase. If they are dearer, they do not deserve it. It is the interest of the great mass of the people of the United States, both producers and consumers, to have ships cheap, for the price of ships enters as an element in the cost of transportation. This monopoly either makes ships dearer, and enhances the cost of transportation, or it is useless. If it makes ships dearer, and enhances the cost of transportation, it should be abolished. If it accomplishes nothing, it is useless, and should not encumber the statute books. We have reason to believe the removal of this monopoly would permit ships to be bought cheaper. In a debate upon this subject, growing out of certain propositions made by the British Government to our Government on this and kindred subjects, it was conceded in debate here, by a distinguished member from the city of New York, (Hon. E. BROOKS,) that ships could be built in the British provinces "some twenty per cent. or more cheaper than in New England or New York." This monopoly ought to be abolished in the interest of the commerce, manufactures, and agriculture of the country.

As regards the next defect in our navigation laws—the prohibition of the coasting trade to foreign ships—this is another monopoly which we conceive to be unjust and inexpedient, and which ought to be abolished.

If there be any one thing in which all the people of the United States, all classes, and all industrial pursuits of all sections except the one class of ship owners, are interested in, it is in cheap sea transportation. When we consider the vast value of the products of the United States which are carried by water coastwise on both our Atlantic and Pacific coasts, the Gulf of Mexico, and the great lakes—some estimate of which may be formed from considering that the amount of tonnage engaged in this transportation is 2,247,663 74 tons, nearly one-half of the total tonnage of the United States—we can readily see how important is the element of cheap transportation. The only practical mode of attaining this result is competition, and yet we resolutely turn our backs upon this principle and persevere in a monopoly. We are clear that our navigation laws should be modified in this respect.

The policy of our navigation laws was borrowed from England, where their wisdom, though in violation, confessedly, of the great principles he announced, was sustained even by Adam Smith, the great architect of the modern system of political economy. Yet England, after clinging to these laws for centuries as one of the anchors of her safety, has within a few

years, under the influence of more enlightened principles, abandoned them.

As regards the present tariff, we think its principal defects are—

1. That too large a proportion of the duties is thrown on articles of prime necessity. For instance, nearly one-half of the present revenue is raised from duties on cotton, woolen, iron manufactures, and sugar. These articles are indispensable to the great mass of the people—the laboring classes—so that an undue portion of the burden of taxation is thrown on the laboring classes. To reduce duties on articles of necessity, is, in effect, to increase wages, as the same wages will go further.

2. It is protective in its character, as is obvious from the following considerations: Ordinary cotton manufactures pay 24 per cent., bagging pays 15, but all bleached, printed, painted or dyed cotton goods and de laines pay 30 per cent. Manufactures of iron pay 24; pig, bar, sheet, and all other iron, 24. Woolen manufactures pay 24, except flannels and baizes, which pay 19. Sugars of all kinds, 24 per cent. Manufactures of silks pay 19 per cent. Adzes pay 24 per cent. Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges, 24; boots and bootees, for men or women, 24. The fact that silk manufactures, used by the rich, pay 19 per cent., and cotton, woolen, iron manufactures—manufactures indispensable to the industry of the country—pay 24 and 30 per cent., when 20 per cent may be assumed as the highest revenue standard of duty on these articles, indicate the deference paid to the principle of protection. A minute analysis of the present tariff will only further illustrate this fact.

3. There are certain imposts on the free list which should not be there, as, for instance, tea and coffee. These articles, tea and coffee, are peculiarly suited for taxation. They are not produced in this country, therefore there would be no indirect tax paid on them. They are of general consumption, and a tax upon them, besides furnishing an addition to our income, now much needed, would fall equally on all classes and sections.

The reason of placing these articles on the free list is obvious enough. It is to prevent the necessity of reduction on such articles introduced from abroad as enter into competition with similar home products. By diminishing the free list, we could diminish the general rate of duty on many articles entering into universal consumption.

If the policy of collecting the revenue of the government by duties on imports is to be continued, we think the tariff should be modified on the following principles:

1. A total abandonment of the policy of protection. No duty should be laid with the view of protecting any form of industry. The tariff should be considered purely as a fiscal instrumentality. We have no idea that any tariff can be instituted that will not in some degree, either more or less, operate in a protective character. Such will be the unavoidable effect of all duties on articles of a similar nature to home products. And the production of this effect becomes constantly greater, from the fact that the cost of production is steadily decreasing in this country, from the increase of population and capital, aided by the increase of skill and improvements in the processes of production. From this cause a lower rate of duty will operate protectively now, to what it did twenty years ago. The operation of this principle constitutes one of our objections to any tariff, as we would wish so to regulate taxation as that no class should, in any degree, derive benefit from it as a bounty.

2. Articles of prime necessity should be taxed at the lowest rate of duty, and articles of luxury at the highest revenue standard. The reasons of this are so obvious that we do not think it necessary to enlarge upon them. Our purpose would be to relieve the producing classes as much as possible from the burdens of taxation.

3. The free list should be confined to such articles as furnish so inconsiderable an amount of revenue as not to remunerate for the trouble and expense of collection, and the raw material of domestic manufactures. According to this principle, tea and coffee should be required to pay duty. As regards the exemption of the raw materials of manufactures, this, while a benefit to the home manufacturer, would operate no injury to any class, as the effect would only be to cheapen production, an advantage which would be shared by all the consumers—that is, by the great mass of the people. Upon this point of the free list, we submit the following statement showing what amount of revenue might be derived from laying a duty of 20 per cent. on certain articles which now pay no duty.

Statement exhibiting the amount of duties that would have accrued upon "certain articles of general consumption," admitted free of duty during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1857, had 20 per centum ad valorem been charged upon them.

Articles.	Value.	Duties.
Teas.....	\$5,757,860	\$1,151,572 00
Coffee.....	22,386,879	4,477,375 80
Copper, plates, suited to the sheathing of vessels	351,311	70,262 20
Copper ore.....	1,440,314	288,062 80
Sheathing metal.....	748,372	149,674 40
Garden seeds, trees, shrubs, plants, &c.....	886,504	77,300 80
 Total.....	 \$31,071,240	 \$6,214,248 00

We now approach the subject of direct taxation.

The first purpose is, to understand exactly what is meant by this system.

The Constitution provides :

"Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons."

"No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken."

"All duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States."

Judge Story, commenting on these clauses, says :

"What are direct taxes, in the sense of the Constitution, since they are required to be laid by the rule of apportionment? It is clear that capitation taxes, or, as they are more commonly called, poll-taxes—that is taxes upon the polls, heads, or persons of the contributors—are direct taxes, for the Constitution has expressly enumerated them as such. 'No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid,' &c., is the language of that instrument. Taxes on lands, houses, and other permanent real estate, or on parts or appurtenances thereof, have always been deemed of the same character—that is, direct taxes. It has been seriously doubted if, in the sense of the Constitution, any taxes are direct taxes, except those on polls or lands."—(Story Com. Const.)

"In the year 1794 Congress passed an act laying duties upon carriages—for every coach, &c., &c., the yearly sum of ten dollars—and made the levy uniform throughout the United States. The constitutionality of the act was contested in the case of *Hylton vs United States*, 3 Dall. R., 171, upon the ground that it was a direct tax, and so ought to be apportioned among the States, according to their numbers. After solemn argument, the Supreme Court decided that it was not a direct tax within the meaning of the Constitution."—(Story Com. Const.)

Without committing ourselves to the correctness of Judge Story's opinion and the decision of the Supreme Court, as to what taxes are direct, we do not propose to legislate in conflict with such distinction.

It would seem, from the decisions of the Supreme Court, that the only direct taxes, in the sense of the Constitution, are

taxes on persons and lands. These taxes are to be laid by the rule of apportionment; that is to say, each State will pay such an amount of the entire tax to be collected as the proportion its population bears to the entire population of all the States, deducting two-fifths of the slaves. All other internal taxes, except the taxes on lands and persons, would be laid according to the rule of uniformity.

Such being the law, as now expounded, upon the subject of internal taxes, which includes as well direct taxes, in the sense of the Constitution, as all other taxes of that character, the practical system which we would recommend would be as follows:

Ascertain the total amount needed for the government. Apportion that among the States, according to the rule of apportionment, and let each State collect its quota in its own way, and pay over such quota, deducting the reasonable expenses of collection.

The advantage of this system would be—

1. Perfect equality, according to the provisions of the Constitution, in the burdens of taxation. The moral effects of this perfect constitutional equality could not well be overestimated. No State, no section could complain of paying an undue share; for each State, loyal to the Constitution, could not but be satisfied with the equality of the Constitution. There could be no longer any complaint of class taxation. The apportionment would simply be the result of an arithmetical calculation, in pursuance of the rule prescribed by the Constitution. The vast enlargement of the republic, and the increase of States, inculcates most strongly the benefits of removing all causes of complaints, as to the inequality of taxation, by establishing the system of equality laid down in the Constitution.

The only objection to this mode of collecting the taxes is, that possibly some of the States might refuse to collect their quota. But this objection could be surmounted by the Federal Government collecting the quota of such State by its own fiscal agents.

2. This system of each State collecting its own quota would dispense with the services of at least three thousand federal officers who are necessary under the present system. Under the proposed system a United States sub-treasurer in each State would be amply sufficient. The advantages of this incidental consequence would be very great, indeed, for one of the dangers of our federal system of government is its vast patronage. The effect of this vast and necessarily increasing patronage is to augment the dangers of the presi-

dential elections. The fierce struggles arising every four years, with increasing violence, for the possession of the Government, derive a great deal of their intensity from the extensive patronage in the gift of the administration. The diminution of that patronage, one of the necessary evils of our system, cannot but recommend itself to every lover of his country.

3. Another advantage of a direct system of taxation is the fact, obvious from many considerations, which we do not now propose to enlarge upon, that the least amount possible of taxation will be imposed on the people, who, knowing precisely what they pay, will become more vigilant on this point, and naturally insist on the utmost economy in the expenditures of the government.

4. Another advantage of direct taxation, perhaps not inferior to any which has been mentioned, is that it will be the least interference possible with the industry of the country. Under this system, and under this system alone, industry will be left perfectly free, and we can attain the great point of entire free trade. This involves a more extended consideration of this branch of the subject.

The doctrine of free trade, or, as it may more comprehensively be called, free exchanges, rests upon the great principle of justice. Every individual has a right to use his labor in the manner most to his own advantage, provided he violates the right of no other person. Individuals cannot enjoy this right effectually, unless they are permitted to exchange the fruits of their labor to the best advantage. Government, therefore, has no right to interfere by protective or prohibitory duties, and compel one portion of the community to exchange the fruits of their industry, their products, with another class of the community on less advantageous terms than they could exchange them with foreigners. For instance: Government cannot rightfully, by protective duties, compel the wheat growers of Ohio to exchange their wheat for a less value of goods manufactured in New England than they could obtain by exchange with English manufacturers. To do so, is to commit a spoliation on the wheat growers of Ohio for the benefit of the New England manufacturers. To the degree that these wheat growers are compelled by such protective duties to exchange their products for a less value, to that extent a spoliation is committed upon them. Suppose Government should say that labor should not receive more than a certain amount of wages as its recompense, no one could doubt but that this would be an act of the greatest injustice; that to the extent to which labor would be compelled to receive a less amount than it would obtain if not forbidden, that to that

extent there would be confiscation. Every fair mind would at once revolt against such legislation as this; yet what difference is there, in principle, or the practical consequences, between this prohibition of full wages and the prohibition to exchange the products of labor to the best advantage? None whatever. They are only different modes of attaining the same end.

One of the leading purposes for which government is constituted is the protection of property. The only property which a large portion, perhaps a majority, of the people of every government possess, is the product of their own labor. The right of labor is the great property right of every society. This sacred property right of labor can only be fully enjoyed by freedom of exchanges. If this freedom of exchanges is interrupted by government, not for fiscal purposes, but for alleged industrial purposes, to give a monopoly to certain forms of industry, then a blow is struck at the right of labor. It is in this light that the protective policy is so odious as an infringement of the rights of labor. If there be any right in this country which this government should respect, it should be the right of labor. Any legislation against this right, by which it is, in any degree injured or abridged, is in violation of justice and the spirit of our republican institutions. The protective policy does infringe upon this right of labor, for it diminishes the value of a large portion of the labor of the country by prohibiting such labor from exchanging its products to the best advantage. It is in this view of justice to labor, respect for this great and only property right of the toiling millions, that free exchange recommends itself so strongly. No industrial system can be right which reposes, as its corner-stone, upon a great injustice. The protective system as necessarily being founded upon the idea of compulsory, involuntary, and inadequate exchanges, necessarily rests upon a great undenied, undeniable, and startling injustice, which should not be tolerated in this age and in this country.

So far we have considered the question of free exchanges on the ground of right. It is now proposed to consider it on the ground of expediency.

The doctrine of free exchanges rests on one great industrial maxim, that individuals are better judges of their monetary interests than government can be; and if industry is left perfectly free, it will, as a general rule, take the wisest direction. This maxim is either true, or it is false. If it is true, then protection—that is, interference with industry—is unwise. If it is false, then protection is wise. Now, is it true or false? for upon this question rests the protective policy. That this maxim is true, appears from the slightest consideration. There

are two elements in production, capital and labor, without which industry—the process of production, would not exist. Capital is, of all the social elements, the most sagacious. Capital may be said to represent the common sense of mankind more than any other element of civilization. Capital, in obedience to the great principle of common sense, which it represents, instinctively seeks the profitable, and shrinks from the unprofitable. Profit is the genius of capital—its mind, body, soul, heart; and capital, under these dominating instincts, as naturally turns from loss to gain as the magnetic needle from the south to the north. So far as this great element of production is concerned, there needs no interference of government to give it direction. Its nature is to take the best course. So far as labor, the other element of production, is concerned, its natural instincts may, likewise, be relied on to pursue profit. Men do not labor for nothing. They labor for gain—what we call wages. Unless they could get wages, they would not labor; they would prefer to do nothing. Labor is unpleasant, and all men instinctively seek to get the most wages with the least labor. In other words, the natural tendency of labor is to seek profit, and avoid loss. The genius of capital and labor both being so antagonistic to loss, and so attracted to gain, we think we are authorized to take for granted the maxim above announced, that individuals are better judges of their monetary interests than government. If so, then it follows that government ought not to interfere with industry, but leave it perfectly free to work out its own mission.

If these general principles which we have been considering on the policy of protection be conceded, we might rest the argument here; but, as they may still be controverted, we will pursue it further.

The argument for the freedom of exchanges may be stated in two forms, negatively and affirmatively: negatively, by showing the impolicy of the protective policy; affirmatively, by direct considerations recommending it. We do not hope to shed new light upon a question which has been so elaborately discussed by the greatest intellects for nearly a century. We can only hope to popularize some of the most forcible views which have been taken.

The practical working of the protective policy is this: imposition of high duties on those foreign products which come in competition with home products, so as to compel the consumers to purchase home products at enhanced prices. The first fact which arrests our attention from this statement is, that the foreign products are furnished cheaper than the rival home products, as otherwise there would be no use for the

high duties. The practical effect of this, then, is, that the consumers are prevented by governmental interference from buying cheap. This seems to be a very singular effect for government to aim at, because individual wisdom always suggests the idea of buying cheap. All men of ordinary sagacity, in the management of their private affairs, invariably endeavor to buy cheap. Individuals who would act upon a different principle would be considered fit subjects for a *commission de lunatique inquirendo*. Now, it is very strange that laws should be made by government to prevent men buying cheap. If it be wise for individuals to buy cheap, why is it not wise for the whole nation to buy cheap? The very first step of the protectionists seems to be founded in a negation of the universal practice and experience of mankind in their individual relations.

It is sometimes denied that protective duties increase the price of the home product. But there can be no dispute upon this point, for, unless the protective duties increase the price of the home product, what is the use of the duty? There is no other possible mode in which the duty can operate in favor of the home producer, except by increasing prices. If it does not accomplish this effect, then the duty is inoperative. But the tenacity with which the protectionists cling to the duty shows that it is efficacious. If the duty on the foreign product does not increase the price of the home product, then there can be no objection to reducing or abolishing the duty. But the opposition to reduction of duty on the part of the home producer, whose only object is high prices, demonstrates the effect produced. Higher prices for the home product implies the expenditure of a greater amount of labor to accomplish the same purpose, for labor is the true measure of value. If it be considered wise to waste labor, then the policy of compelling the consumer to buy at a higher price from the home producer is defensible; otherwise, it is not. The very civilization we enjoy is the fruit of labor-saving appliances. If we are superior to the barbarians, it is because we can accomplish more by our labor than they can. The highest development of society is the accomplishment of the greatest results with the least labor. It is for this reason that the great discoveries in the arts and sciences, magnifying to an almost incalculable extent the productive powers of human labor, have conferred such vast benefits on mankind. Strike from existence our labor-saving discoveries, our steam-engines, our railroads, our magnetic telegraphs, our innumerable labor-saving appliances, and we have relapsed into barbarism. The saving of labor is not merely the genius of civilization, but civilization itself. Any policy, then, by which this hu-

manizing process of saving labor is abridged, is not merely a pause in the onward movement of society, but a step backwards. The protective policy, then, as raising prices to the consumer, which is the same thing as requiring more labor to accomplish a given result, and thus, as attacking the problem of saving labor, is antagonistic to the great social progress of the civilized world.

Again: the protected forms of industry are either profitable or unprofitable. If they are profitable, they do not need protection; if they are unprofitable, they do not merit it; for the idea of legislating to turn capital into unprofitable channels in this country is, of all absurdities, the greatest. Look at our country, a vast continent, extending from one great ocean to another great ocean, resting on the south upon the great American gulf, and on the north upon a chain of vast lakes, with every variety of soil and climate, a vast portion of it in its virgin condition, only needing development, and promising in its development the richest returns. Does it not seem, when such vast fields of production—in commerce, in agriculture, in mining—lay inviting before us, that of all things in the world we need not hunt out and legislate to force unprofitable pursuits? In no country in the world is there such an extended field for the application of capital and labor productively as in our country. Then why not let capital and labor take spontaneously their natural direction? Why strive to force them by governmental action into barren channels?

In this connexion we would allude to a great fact, which should never be lost sight of, that the protective policy does not increase capital; it only gives a new direction. The capital remains the same after you have passed your protective laws as it did before; you only force it into new directions. If by your legislation you could increase the capital of the country, then there might be some reason for your legislation; but as all your laws do not increase by a single dollar the amount of capital, how futile are your efforts for good!

The popular fallacy on which the protective policy rests is the encouragement of home industry. It is true you may build up certain forms of industry, but, in doing so, you have done it at the expense of other forms of industry. If, for instance, you have developed the woolen manufacture by high duties and raising the prices of woolen goods, you have done so at the expense of the other industrial classes which consume those woolens; for you have compelled them to give a higher price for their woolens; and to the extent of this enhanced price, you have discouraged them in their industry. The most effectual protection of home industry is to let every form of industry attain its most profitable results. This you can

only do by permitting freedom of exchanges. Then every form of industry exchanges its fruits to the best advantage, and consequently derives the most profit.

Protection does not increase the rate of wages, and this from a very obvious reason, because the competition among the protected forms of industry prevents profits from remaining permanently higher than the average rate of the profits of capital in the country generally; and therefore the wages in the protected forms of industry cannot be higher than the ordinary wages of the country. The facts in reference to wages in the protected forms of industry in this country bear out the theoretical proposition laid down upon the subject; for, as is well known to all who are familiar with this branch of the subject, the wages of manufacturing laborers is in no degree above the average wages in other forms of industry.

It is a singular fact, that while we hear so much on this point of protecting American industry, no one, not even the most jealous protectionist, has taken any exception to the free introduction of foreign labor. That is foreign competition by the very firesides of our laboring classes. Their so-called peculiar friends take no steps to discourage this competition, the necessary effect of which is to decrease wages. To estimate the extent of the competition from this cause, it is only necessary to refer to the number of immigrants who have entered this country from 1843 to 1853. The statistics of immigration show that within that period 3,174,395 immigrants arrived in the United States from foreign countries.

But, during all this period, no complaint has been uttered by the peculiar friends of home industry, the protectionists. Why was this? The reason is sufficiently obvious: because the protective policy is designed to benefit the capitalists, and is not urged in the interest of the laboring classes, though that popular sentiment is assumed. Nothing could more thoroughly demonstrate the falsity of the assumption that protection is designed for the benefit of the laboring classes, than the stubborn fact that the protectionists have made no efforts to discourage the immigration of foreign laborers, but on the contrary, have steadily encouraged the same, when the necessary effect was to diminish the wages of labor. There are only two modes of increasing the rate of wages:

1. By increasing the amount of capital.
2. By diminishing the quantity of labor.

The protectionists do not increase capital; but, by encouraging immigration, increasing the quantity of labor, they necessarily diminish wages. They do not wish foreign products introduced, because that jars upon them; they favor

the introduction of foreigners because that, while it jars upon the American laboring classes, benefits them. While we do not propose to exclude the foreigner, nor to discourage his immigration, we desire to strip from the protective policy the delusive pretence that it is urged to protect home industry, in the face of the fact that foreign immigration is encouraged, with its necessary consequences of diminishing wages.

The protectionists insist upon their policy as necessary to make us independent of foreign powers. This is a very pretty phase; but when we examine the rationale of it it is not so captivating. Dependence on foreign nations only amounts to this: that, by exchanging our products with them, we get what we want cheaper; by being independent, we get what we want dearer; because, if we buy from foreigners, it is because they can furnish us cheaper than we can supply ourselves; otherwise, we would not buy from them. This dependence, which rests upon the idea of getting the best bargains, cannot be very injurious; and that independence which consists in buying at the highest prices is not very attractive. But independence is entirely a relative term; if we, in order to make ourselves independent of foreigners, refuse to buy from them, they cannot buy from us; so that, in making ourselves independent of them, we have compelled them to become independent of us. If we have no importations, there can be no exportations. Commerce is the exchange of products. If we will not receive the products of the foreigner, then we lay an embargo on our own products. What do we gain by independence of foreigners, but the privilege of laboring harder to attain the same results? Then, do we get any better treatment from our home producer than from the foreign producer? The home producer will get all he can out of us; the foreign producer can do no more. Experience does not show that the home producer lavishes any more generosity upon us than the foreigner. It is only a question of profit with both classes of producers. Free trade gives us the chance of competition. Protection restricts our range of purchase, and forces us to buy from the home producer.

The leading error of the protective policy is having regard only to the interest of the producer. It undertakes to promote the prosperity of certain favored home producers by insuring them high prices. On the contrary, the great object to be regarded is the interest of the consumers. The object of all production is consumption. The protected producers are, comparatively, a small class; the consumers are the great mass of the people—everybody. The true purpose, therefore, should be to promote, as far as possible, the interests of the consumers. The interests of the consumers consist in cheap

production, attainable only by entire freedom of exchanges. Upon cheapness of production depends the well-being of the great mass of the people. It is for this reason that the great improvements in machinery, made in the last century, have been so beneficial to mankind. To cheapen food and clothes, for instance, is to confer a direct gratuity on mankind. Instead of increasing the cost of production, our great purpose should be to diminish it as much as possible. To accomplish this, we must turn from protection, the interest of a few producers, to freedom of exchanges, the interest of the large class of consumers.

It requires no extended argument to show that protection is injurious in this country to agriculture and commerce. Agriculture has possession of the home market naturally; free trade superadds to this the foreign market, increases the demand, and the more the demand is increased the better. Protection excludes the foreign market and leaves only the home market; for if we are prohibited from buying from foreigners, they cannot buy from us. Look at the immense amount of wheat raised in the northwest, which has found a market in Europe within the last five years, greatly to the advantage of the American wheat growers. Carry out your protective policy to its full results, and you cut off American wheat from that foreign market. The same principle which applies to wheat, applies, in a greater or less degree, to all the great agricultural interests of the country. Commerce, by which we mean foreign commerce in this connexion, is nothing but the exchange of our products for foreign products. Its greatest development consists in the greatest freedom of exchanges. Paralyze importations by the protective policy, and you paralyze exportations, and annihilate commerce. Free exchange is only another name for commerce.

Protection is monopoly, and, therefore, anti-republican. It is impossible to protect all classes. You can only protect those forms of industry which produce what foreigners produce. All other classes of the community who do not produce articles in competition with the foreigner cannot be protected. The result is, that you protect one class at the expense of all other classes. You protect the unprofitable forms of industry by throwing burdens on the profitable forms of industry. The only way to protect all classes is to protect none; to let all alone, and use your powers of taxation simply for fiscal purposes. Preserve order, enforce justice, and practice the *laissez nous faire* policy, and you have done the best you can do, in view of the interests of all.

The genius of the age is in nothing so strikingly apparent as in the efforts to overcome all obstacles to exchanges. Look

at the great lines of railroads in this country and in Europe, constructed at such immense labor and expense. Look at the steam fleets on the great oceans; the magnetic wires, spread like a net-work of thought over the civilized world, and which we are trying now, like the giants of civilization, to lay down even across the bottom of the Atlantic ocean. What is the object of these stupendous undertakings? Is it not to remove, as far as human power can, the obstacles to free intercourse and free exchanges? And yet what is the protective policy but a self-imposed obstacle to the system of free exchanges? We pause at no labor to remove the obstacles of nature, and then we interpose an artificial obstacle. Strange inconsistency! To understand this in its full force, we must consider that the logical consequence of protection is prohibition. If it is unwise to buy from the foreigner because his product is only twenty per cent. cheaper than the home product, then it is unwise to buy from him though it were a thousand per cent. cheaper. The protective policy carried out to its legitimate conclusions would be non-intercourse with the foreigner, and the inauguration of the Japanese policy. What a termination for our railroads, steam fleets, and magnetic wires!

Such is the protective policy, repudiated by all the great thinkers who have devoted themselves to the subject of political economy, admitted by almost every intelligent individual to be true in theory, yet disregarded almost habitually by the governing powers.

The great doctrine of free exchange rests on this simple proposition, that there are two modes of obtaining an article:

1. To make it;
2. To make something to give in exchange for it; and that is the best way which obtains the desired article with the least labor.

Mankind need certain products. Shall each man make these products himself, or shall he make something to give in exchange for them? Whichever way the purpose can be attained with least labor is the best way.

If we can make something which the foreigner wants, and obtain from him what we want with less labor than we could make it ourselves, shall we not make the exchange? Free trade says we should. The system of free exchanges considers labor as only a means to an end, and adopts that mode by which the end can be most easily attained. Individuals do not think they gain by making their own shoes; they find it to their advantage to patronize the shoemaker. This is the doctrine of free exchanges which we wish to see applied to nations. It is the principle upon which individuals invaria-

bly act from a practical knowledge of their own interests. If it is wise for all persons individually, why is it not wise for all collectively? Why should not the Government act upon this policy? It should be borne in mind that it is not so important to have manufactures as the products of manufactures. If we can obtain those products with less labor, that is cheaper, by exchanging our own products for them, so much the better.

What we need in this country more than anything else to the highest development of our industrial resources is capital. Free trade virtually gives us this capital, because it gives us the fruits of capital. If we consume the products of five hundred millions of capital in Europe, we have, to all practical purposes, got the use of that capital. Freedom of exchange gives us the benefit of a vast foreign capital. To illustrate: Suppose that, instead of investing a hundred millions in woolen manufactures, we are supplied with foreign woolens, this leaves the one hundred millions of capital free for other purposes; therefore, we have, in effect, added this much to our capital. Instead, therefore, of envying the advantages of other people, we ought rather to rejoice at them, and, by free exchanges, get all the benefit we can from them.

Free trade allays sectional agitation. The real strength of a government consists in justice. When all classes and sections see that there are no bounties, no monopolies, no class legislation, but, on the other hand, see that there is perfect justice, the government commands the confidence of all. It is difficult to estimate the importance of this confidence. It is the bulwark of a State. Another good effect, which should be referred to in this connection, is this: By freedom of exchanges, you remove all interest for classes to struggle for the possession of the government. If legislation be the interest of a class or classes, then each class struggles to get control of the government to legislate for its peculiar benefit. By establishing the principle of free trade, you relieve our politics entirely from this contestation, so far as the great function of taxation is concerned.

Further, why do we extend our territory? The paramount purpose is the extension of our commerce. Free exchanges give us this extension without the dangers of territorial expansion. Why not, then, take this peaceful course, as beneficial to us, as to all other people. This brings to mind the moral effects of free trade, bringing the different people of the earth nearer together in the bonds of interest and intercourse, thus carrying out the will of God; for why are there such various climates and productions, but to inculcate the dependence of nations upon nations, and compel a unity of interests

and continual intercourse. Free trade is the cause of peace. Let it become the common law of nations, and war will be impossible. The present Emperor of France, on ascending the throne, announced a memorable sentiment, which has been much repeated, that the empire was peace. This was said in especial reference to Great Britain. But recent events show how hollow is the truce between these countries. The reason of this is plain enough—the ports of France are almost entirely shut against English trade. The consequence is, that England and France are not bound together by material interests; they remain two hostile camps. Waterloo never can be forgotten and peace permanently established, until free commercial intercourse originates a new class of ideas and feelings, founded on mutual interests and intercommunication.

Free trade is the dawn of a new era. It is the cause of philanthropy and Christianity. What people more proper to lead in the great movement than the people of the United States? The genius of our institutions is the greatest amount possible of personal freedom. To extend this same degree of freedom to all forms of industry seems to be but a logical deduction from the genius of our institutions. What country better situated for free trade than the United States, occupying the best portion of a great continent, bounding on oceans, gulfs and lakes; situate midway between the great industrial nations of Europe and the teeming and gorgeous East, and in close proximity to the West Indies and South America? We have only to advance under the banner of free trade to command the commerce and invite the capital of the world. By this movement, we would do more for civilization, progress, peace, philanthropy, Christianity, than it has ever been the lot of any people to accomplish by a single act in the history of the world.

We could not conclude this view of the subject without calling attention to the recent inauguration in Great Britain, under the influence of the celebrated anti-corn law league, headed by Cobden, Bright, and other great intellects, of the policy of free trade. Standing as Great Britain does at the head of the great movement of civilization, administered as her government is with such profound wisdom, her example, in this particular, commands our attention, and the remarkable success which has crowned her efforts invites our co-operation.

In 1842 England was in a decline, laboring under a paralysis from the protective policy; her exports diminishing, her revenue falling off, universal stagnation. Fortunately for England, a great party had grown up demanding free trade, under the lead of some of the greatest thinkers of the age. Sir Robert

Peel was prime minister; he was a great man; he comprehended the exigencies of the situation; he saw that longer persistence in the protective policy was madness; he determined to revolutionize the tariff policy of his country. He struck at the very heart of English monopoly; he lowered the duty on corn in spite of the execrations of the aristocracy, satisfied with the blessings of the people. In 1845 he made further advances in free trade. Subsequently, under the administration of Lord John Russell, the duties were greatly reduced, and the celebrated act of navigation repealed. The principle on which these modifications of the English tariff went was the freedom of exchanges, and throwing taxation, by the income tax, on property. The results of this policy were most beneficial on the revenue and prosperity of the country. Between 1842 and 1853 duties on imports and the excise were reduced over £10,000,000; yet in 1853 the amount yielded from these sources was only £122,411 less than in 1842. By remodelling their tariff in England on the principle of free exchanges, they added £6,000,000 to the revenue, and remitted £16,000,000 to the people. Besides this, the general prosperity of the country advanced in an astonishing ratio.

The total exports of England in 1842 were £47,381,023; in 1853, £93,357,306—ninety-seven per cent. greater than in 1842. Such was the result under an approximation to free trade under the protective policy which existed in full force from 1812 to 1822, a corresponding period of ten years: the results were, total exports in 1812, £41,716,964; in 1822, £36,968,964, exhibiting a decline of thirteen per cent. The exports of England to the United States in 1842 were £3,526,807; in 1852, £16,134,397—an increase of three hundred and fifty-six per cent. In 1857 the exports from Great Britain to the United States were, in round numbers, £26,000,000, showing a steady increase.

But we need not go to England for an illustration of the advantages of free trade. The United States, in their remarkable development, present the most striking illustration of its benefits. The United States have made the most astonishing advancement in material progress of all the people in history, ancient or modern. Of all the causes operative in producing this result, the establishment by the Federal Constitution of perfect free trade between all the States of the Union is, beyond doubt, the most efficient. Suppose the energies of the country had been crippled by protective tariffs in every State, it would have taken us centuries to attain our present advancement. We have tested by experience the incalculable advantages of free trade within the wide limits of the United

States; why should we hesitate to extend to its utmost expansion a system which has worked so beneficially for us? there can be no good reason for not doing so. By our reciprocity treaty with England—the Marcy-Elgin treaty—we have given the border States of the North practical free trade, in a very great degree, with the neighboring British provinces. The results of that free trade experiment are most encouraging. Let us advance boldly in this direction, and lead the nations of the earth in the great march of industrial progress. Our ancestors declared the freedom of the colonies; let us declare the freedom of exchanges; the consequences of the second declaration may not be less important or beneficial than the first.

In conclusion, we may be permitted to say that we do not venture to hope that we can inaugurate a new policy on our line of argument immediately. Such radical changes must be the work of time. We aim, therefore, not so much at immediate practical results as to affect public opinion, and thus insure the ultimate triumph of the principle we advocate.

With this view, then, instead of reporting bills for immediate action, we have contented ourselves with formularizing our recommendations in certain resolutions, which are hereto annexed.

W. W. BOYCE, *Chairman.*

1. *Resolved*, That the vast and increasing expenditure of the Federal Government indicates the necessity of a change in our fiscal system, whereby the protective policy shall be entirely abandoned, and a resort had, at as early a period as may be practical, exclusively to direct taxation.

2. *Resolved*, That the existing tariff is defective, as being founded on the protective policy; as taxing certain articles of prime necessity too high; as not discriminating sufficiently, so as to throw the burden of taxation as much as possible on articles of luxury, to the exemption of articles of necessity, and as placing certain articles on the free list which should pay duty; and that any modifications of the tariff which may be made, should be made so as to avoid these defects, and for the purpose of using the tariff merely as a fiscal instrumentality.

3. *Resolved*, That the highest development of the industrial resources of the country is to be attained by the greatest freedom of exchanges, which can only be thoroughly accomplished by the entire abolition of duties on imports, and a resort exclusively to direct taxation.

4. *Resolved*, That the system of direct taxation presenting the most advantages is, for each State to collect and pay over its quota, to be ascertained by the constitutional rule of apportionment; thus insuring perfect equality, and dispensing with multitudes of federal officers.

5. *Resolved*, That the navigation laws should be so modified as not to require any portion of the officers and crews of American ships to be American citizens, and that American citizens shall be free to purchase and sail foreign built ships on an entire equality with American built ships, and that the American coasting trade shall be open on terms of perfect equality to foreign ships.

Statement of the Receipts and Expenditures of the United States during the years 1790, 1800, 1810, 1830, 1840, 1850, and 1857.

Year.	Population.	Increase of pop'n.	Per cent. increase.	Outcomes.	Internal revenue.	Direct taxes.	Postage.	Public funds.	Dividends of bank.	Miscellaneous expenses.	Notes and interest.	Total receipts.	Average receipts during decade.	Expenditures of the Government during the years 1790, 1800, 1810, 1830, 1840, 1850, and 1857.								
														Civil life.	Military service.	Foreign interests.	Miscellaneous.	Revolutionary and other pensions.	Indian department.	Naval establishment.	Total expenditure of public debt.	Average expenditure of public debt.
1790*...	8,920,927	\$1,890,473	\$1,01	\$1,871,036	35.01	\$650,396	\$650,396	\$75,000	\$75,000	\$443	\$71,040	\$19,418,913	\$5,701,113	\$10,310,085	\$5,834,300	\$5,834,300	\$5,834,300	\$5,834,300	\$5,834,300	\$5,834,300
1800*...	5,905,925	1,289,914	1,989,889	36.46	8,538,309	7,480	12,448	606,548	606,548	64,476	64,476	9,884,314	9,759,999	19,461,164	10,502,435	12,470,395	12,470,395	12,470,395	12,470,395	12,470,395	12,470,395	
1810*...	7,389,814	2,389,817	38.35	15,006,612	106,260	31,596	6,465	1,630,871	1,630,871	1,000,000	1,000,000	54,573	17,840,639	8,040,884	20,881,403	18,200,236	18,200,236	18,200,236	18,200,236	18,200,236	18,200,236	
1820*...	9,688,181	2,300,817	30.30	21,922,381	12,160	16,950	55	9,329,356	9,329,356	1,490,000	1,490,000	73,173	24,844,116	11,166,116	22,483,104	22,483,104	22,483,104	22,483,104	22,483,104	22,483,104		
1830*...	19,866,020	3,197,859	32.97	4,208,453	4,208,453	32,67	13,499,569	1,651	1,651	1,777,513	1,777,513	804,668	19,442,646	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	5,659,547	
1840*...	17,089,453	2,191,816	35.57	6,129,453	6,129,453	38,668,656	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	48,592,585	4,056,500	47,649,385	3,900,920	3,900,920	3,900,920	3,900,920	3,900,920	3,900,920	3,900,920		
1850*...	28,191,816	6,129,453	38,668,656	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594	1,850,594		
1857†...	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906	63,575,906		

* The receipts and expenditures are for the period from March 4, 1789, to December 31, 1799, the time when the first statement was made. The average receipts and expenditures were obtained by dividing the whole amount of receipts and expenditures by 21 and multiplying by 12. After the year 1800 the revenue from postage was not paid into the treasury.

† The statement of receipts and expenditures for the years 1850 and 1857 are for the year ending June 30, 1850, 1857. The average of receipts and expenditures is for the decade, including the year opposite the amount.

The foregoing table shows the average receipts into the treasury—

1790.....	for each person \$1 48, and the payments \$1 05
1790 to 1800.....	do..... 1 60 do..... 1 68
1800 to 1810.....	do..... 1 84 do..... 1 84
1810 to 1820 (includes war of 1812).....	do..... 3 34 do..... 3 35
1820 to 1830.....	do..... 1 82 do..... 1 78
1830 to 1840.....	do..... 1 92 do..... 1 78
1840 to 1850.....	do..... 1 71 do..... 1 68
1850 to 1857 estimating ratio of increase of population at same ratio as per 1840 to 1850,	2 20 do..... 2 14

From 1790 to 1857—

The increase of population has been.....	638 per cent.
" payment into the treasury.....	993 "
" expenditures.....	1,405 "

ART. II.—EQUALITY OF THE RACES—HAYTIEN AND BRITISH EXPERIMENTS.

THE DOGMA OF THE NATURAL MENTAL EQUALITY OF THE BLACK AND WHITE RACES CONSIDERED.

WHEN the anti-slavery doctrines were first taught, and for many years after, one of the main positions of the advocates was, the assumption of the natural equality and capacity for mental improvement of the black and white races, or the negro and Caucasian. This bold assumption of the one party was either tacitly admitted, or but rarely and faintly denied, by the other. It was then generally supposed that, with full opportunity and facilities, and sufficient time for improvement, the negro could be raised to be equal to the white man in mental acquirements—or, at least, to the capacity for self-government, and self-support, and preservation. There had then been no sufficiently long and full practical trial or experiment of this doctrine. Since, there have been ample trials in practice which have served so fully to prove the contrary, that no unprejudiced mind can now admit the equality of intellect of the two races, or even the capacity of the black race either to become or remain industrious, civilized, when in a state of freedom and under self-government—or, indeed, in any other condition than when held enslaved and directed by white men. A few general statements and comments thereon will be here presented, on each of the several great and long continued experiments of freedom conferred on negroes, either as individuals, or in societies and communities, independent of the white race.

THE INTELLECTUAL INFERIORITY OF THE BLACK RACE, TESTED BY FACTS, IN THE UNITED STATES.

Hundreds of thousands of individual cases of emancipated slaves, and their descendants, have existed in this country in

the last two centuries. This class has now increased, in Virginia alone, to more than 50,000 in number. In the non-slaveholding States, also, there are numerous free negroes. It is true, that when thus interspersed among the much more numerous and dominant class of white inhabitants, the free negroes are subjected to some depressing and injurious influences, from which they would be relieved if forming a separate community. But, on the other hand, they have derived more than compensating benefits from their position, in the protection of government to person and property, and the security of both, and exemption from the evils of war, and from great oppression by any stronger power. Yet, in all this long time, and among such great numbers of free negroes, everywhere protected in person and property, and in the facilities to acquire property—and in some of the Northern States, endowed with political, as well as civil rights and power equal with the white citizens—still to this day, and with but few individual exceptions, the free negroes in every State of this Confederacy, are noted for ignorance, indolence, improvidence, and poverty—and very generally, also, for vicious habits, and numerous violations of the criminal laws. In this plentiful country, where the only great want is for labor, and where every free laborer may easily earn a comfortable support, this free negro class is so little self-sustaining, that it now scarcely increases, in general, by procreation, and would annually decrease throughout the United States, if not continually recruited by new emancipations, and by fugitives from slavery. The free negroes fare best in the slaveholding States, and in them only is the whole increase by procreation. In the Northern or "free" States, if the free negroes were not continually added to by emancipated and fugitive slaves from the South, there would be seen a continued diminution of number, from the effects of suffering from want, and vicious habits. In all this long time of freedom, and with great facilities for improvement, there has not appeared among all these free negroes a single individual showing remarkable, or even more than ordinary, power of intellect—or any power of mind that would be deemed worth notice in any individual of the white race. Yet, in the Northern States, free schools are open to the children of the blacks as freely as to the whites—many have received collegiate education—and nothing but the immutable decree of God, fixing on them mental inferiority, has prevented high grades of intellect and of learning, being displayed in numerous cases. Further, the absence of industry is as general as the inferiority of mental powers. Some few negroes are laborious, frugal, provident, and thrifty.

A very few have acquired considerable amounts of property. But these rare qualities were not hereditary—and the children of these superior individuals would be as like as others to fall back to the ordinary condition of their class. In short, taken throughout, and with but few exceptions, the free negro class, in every part of this country, is a nuisance, and noted for ignorance, laziness, improvidence, and vicious habits.

EXPERIMENT OF COLONIZING FREED NEGROES IN LIBERIA.

But philanthropists, while admitting these facts, had associated the continued debasement of the free negroes in this country to their previous low condition, and to their still inferior position to the far more numerous and dominant white class. Relief from this alleged evil to the blacks, and, with it, every benefit of industry, thrift, and improvement, was expected to be obtained by the free negro when colonizing Liberia, in Africa. That colony has now been established forty years. It has been sustained, by funds raised by or for the Colonization Society, better than any colony ever before planted and settled by white people. It has wanted for nothing that the most benevolent and parental care of guardianship could provide. The settlers were generally of the best of the class of free negroes of this country, or of emancipated slaves, selected and provided for by their former owners, to enjoy the supposed benefits of freedom. The people and the government have had the protecting, beneficial, and always-desired guidance of white intellect; and there has been no injurious influence from white residents, or foreign interference. Besides all the money and commodities so liberally bestowed by benevolent individuals in this country to plant and support this colony, some of the State governments have afforded to it pecuniary or other aid, and the Federal Government has given much more important, though indirect aid and support, and also military and naval aid and protection. Further: since the so-called independence and ostensible self-government of Liberia, the higher officers of government have been mostly mulattoes, who are as much of the white as of the black blood and intellect. With all these advantages, and such long support by the money, and direction by the intellect, of the whites, the colony of Liberia is a complete (though a partly concealed and denied) failure. With a soil of exuberant fertility, and a climate no less bountiful for production, the inhabitants of Liberia do not yet produce sufficient food and other necessary means for subsistence. All the necessities of life, including rice, sugar, and others of the most ready and plentiful products of the country, sell at such exorbitant

prices as to show plainly their usual scarcity.* Lately the people were even menaced by actual famine, because of the great scarcity of articles of food, and the want of means to purchase food from abroad. Indolence and aversion to regular labor are universal. Agricultural operations and production are in the lowest condition. If the long-continued aid of the Colonization Society was even now withheld, and also the benevolent guidance and influence of the intellect of the white guardians and protectors, this much boasted and falsely eulogised colony, and now "Republic of Liberia," would rapidly decline below its present low condition; and all the residents, who could not escape from it, to find shelter under the shadow of the white man's presence and government, would sink to the state of savage barbarism and heathen ignorance and vice, such as had formerly overspread the land. The only means by which negroes in Africa, as well as in America or elsewhere, can generally be made industrious and useful as laborers, and civilized, moral, and christian, will be when they are placed in the condition of domestic slaves to white masters.

Still earlier was made, and has been much longer continued, the settlement of free negroes in the colony of Sierra Leone, under the direction and care, and at the expense of the British Government. It is enough to say for this experiment that its failure has been much more signal than that of Liberia. The settlers of Sierra Leone were mostly recaptured and uncivilized Africans. In Liberia nearly all the colonists had been civilized by the best preparatory training of slavery in America. The difference alone would serve to account for the greater failure of the scheme of Sierra Leone.

While so many whites in Europe, and even in America, blinded by prejudice, fanaticism, or ignorance of the negro characteristics, have argued to maintain the natural equality of the negro mind, the negroes themselves, including the most enlightened among them, have universally acknowledged the inferiority of their race. One of the results of this acknowledged inferiority is the well known general unwillingness of negroes to be governed by men of their own race,

* The following paragraph, not long since, appeared in the Richmond Dispatch, and various other papers, without comment, and has not been contradicted, and, therefore, is presumed to be correct, though the authority was not stated:

"A correspondent, at Liberia, writes that provisions are mostly imported from the United States. Flour ranges from \$12 to \$16 per barrel; hams and bacon from 20 to 25 cents per pound; hard bread \$18 to \$12 per 100 pounds; rice 85 per bushel; butter 62½ cents per pound; salt fish from \$12 to \$14 per barrel; sugar 25 cents per pound; potatoes \$1 25 per bushel; and everything for family use proportionately high."

compared to their usual submissive odedience and docility to the government of white rulers. It is well known to every slaveholder, who has made an overseer of one of his slaves, that the greatest difficulty was because of the discontent of the negroes to be so governed. They will, in most cases, exhibit unwillingness to be commanded by the most worthy and respectable of their fellows, even if allied to them by ties of blood and friendship, and sometimes will proceed to disobedience, and even mutinous conduct, when they would have submissively obeyed and respected any white man as their overseer, even if, in truth, less respectable as a man, and less lenient and less intelligent in exercising the deputed authority of the master. This respect for white, and impatience of negro rule, extends no less through the class of free negroes. It is because of this general feeling that so few of this class have been or can be prevailed upon to emigrate voluntarily to Liberia. In these slaveholding States, the free negroes, in their usual degraded moral position, and inferior political rights, subject indirectly, if not legally, to the dominant white race, necessarily must suffer injustice and hardship from bad treatment in many cases. Yet it is rare that one of them, whether the most ignorant and degraded, or of the most worthy and intelligent, can be induced to accept the offered bounty of the Colonization Society, and of the State, to be sent to Liberia, and there be made a landholder, and an equal sharer of political rights. So strong is their repugnance to be governed by negroes, or to live where there are no white inhabitants, and, (as they say,) "no gentlemen," that if the free negroes of Virginia should be compelled to choose between being sent to Liberia, to be there free citizens, or to be made slaves, with their families, to white men in Virginia, it is probable that more than half of them would choose to become slaves, to secure white rulers and protectors.

EXPERIMENT OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF NEGROES IN HAYTI.

An earlier experiment than Liberia, and on a much larger scale, has been tried in the insurrection and independence of the slaves of St. Domingo. Even this bloody, and finally successful insurrection, which is so generally understood as presenting full evidence of like dangers attending the condition of slavery, and of the disposition of slaves to rebel, and their ability to succeed, if justly viewed, will fully prove the reverse of all these positions. It was not the slaves of St. Domingo, but the wealthy and educated class of free mulattoes, that commenced the insurrection. And even their efforts would have been speedily and completely quelled, if the contest had been left to be decided by the people of St. Domingo

only. But the then insane government of the powerful mother country interposed, declaring first in favor of equal political rights to the free mulattoes, afterwards repealing that grant, and finally decreeing emancipation and equal rights to all the slaves. Armies were sent from France to enforce these different and opposite decrees. And it was by these extraneous circumstances, and especially by the armed coercion by France, that the final overthrow of the whites, and their consequent general massacre, were effected, and this formerly beautiful and fruitful territory was made a desolate wilderness and ruin—as it still remains, after seventy years of undisturbed negro domination. Even for two years after the mad declaration of equal rights to the slaves, by the National Convention, and after bloody hostilities had been long carried on between the two free classes, (of whites and mulattoes,) and after a French army was in the field to sustain universal emancipation, the slaves were still peacefully laboring, as before, on their masters' plantations. But when so long and so urgently invited, and by the then stronger party of their superiors, to accept their freedom, and (what was to their savage dispositions more inviting) to rob, ravage, and slay at will, it would have been strange, indeed, if these long continued invitations, urged by different parties, had not been at last obeyed. Then it was, and only by these means, that the work of slave insurrection was begun, and the subsequent unprecedented rapine and slaughter, and unspeakable outrages and horrors, were consummated. If there had been only white masters and negro slaves, and no foreign and stronger power, although the whites were only one-tenth the number of their slaves, their mastership would never have been seriously disturbed. This, however, is not the present question—but the success or failure of the subsequent experiment of negro independence and self-government. And this question does not need discussion, so well established is the failure and the long continued, and still continuing desolation of the country, and debased condition of its inhabitants. Because the facts are notorious and indisputable, and can be shown by statistical documents, it will be enough here to say, generally, that in regard to cultivation and production, population, social condition, and political importance—refinement, morals, and religion—in short, in everything that can render a country or its people valuable—the general decline of St. Domingo (or Hayti) has been far greater than any person or party could possibly have anticipated. Neither in the descendants of the former slaves, is there any such improvement of comfort, happiness, or of capacity, that can compensate for the inferiority of the present highest and ruling class,

compared to their former white masters. Of course, the individuals composing the present higher classes, by the aid of wealth, and means for education, are much better informed than they could have been if remaining slaves. But the general or average amount of intelligence, as of their industry and productions, is far below what it was formerly—and the class of laborers is far below what they would have been, if they had continued slaves, and for the last seventy years had been operated on by the civilizing influence of slavery. Further: as much as the case of St. Domingo proves from my argument, after all, it was not a trial of a really freed negro people. The black general Toussaint, (the only truly great man yet known of the negro race,) who, after suppressing the civil war, assumed and exercised despotic and severe authority, compelled the former slaves to return to the plantations, and to labor under military coercion, and severe punishments for disobedience. They were to receive a stated share of the products of the land, (one-third,) and were coerced to labor by government officials, instead of by individual masters. But under this much less efficient, beneficial, and profitable form of bondage, the former slaves were not less than formerly compulsory laborers, and driven by corporal punishment, as they continue to be to this time. This system of discipline and constraint is, of necessity, extremely defective. But imperfect as it is, compared to individual slavery, it has served to retard the rapidity of the descent which this community has been, and still is, making to unproductive and savage barbarism. If any civilized people were now (as ought to be done, and will be done in some future time,) to conquer and re-colonize Hayti, and reduce the whole laboring, or destitute, or idle classes to their former condition of domestic slavery, the change would be beneficial for the re-enslaved classes, for the whole community, and country, and for the commercial and civilized world.

In the seventy years of independence of St. Domingo, and of freedom from invasion and foreign aggression except Toussaint, (who had been a slave, and continued to be perfectly illiterate,) there has not arisen a single man who would be deemed of more than ordinary ability, if he had been of the white race. The higher classes there possess all the still remaining wealth of the country, and can command every facility for education, and mental instruction and improvement. There have ruled and flourished hundreds of high dignitaries, military, political, and clerical—emperors and kings, dukes, generals, and bishops. But there has not yet appeared even one man whom all the advantages of wealth, education, and rank have enabled to exhibit the possession of

strong or remarkable mental power. Is not this alone, sufficient to prove the natural and great inferiority of the negro mind?

EXPERIMENT OF GENERAL EMANCIPATION IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

A fourth great experiment of negro freedom has been devised and conducted under the direction, patronage, and philanthropic care of the enlightened, and powerful British Government. This was the general emancipation of the slaves in all the British colonies of the West India Islands, British Guiana, and wherever African and domestic slavery had before existed under British authority. Proofs and details of facts are not called for in this case. The failure is universal, signal, and undeniable, (with a few notable exceptions,) even by the most zealous of the previous British advocates of the act of emancipation, or the abolitionists who continue to urge the like measure, with the like results manifestly impending, for our slaveholding States.

Previous to this extensive, simultaneous, and peaceful emancipation, the abolitionists of England, and elsewhere, had maintained that, after emancipation, the negroes would immediately become hired laborers—and (judging erroneously from the condition of things in England) that the free labor thus supplied would be even more valuable and cheap to the employers than the former slave labor. On the contrary, universal idleness of the blacks has taken the place of the former universal industry in the British islands. As the philanthropic British sentiment which induced the emancipation, (and forced it on the former slaveholders,) cannot resort to the wholesome discipline of Toussaint, to force the newly freed blacks to labor, the general neglect of labor, and decrease of production, are even worse and more hopeless in Jamaica, than in St. Domingo. And although the continued supremacy of British Government and authority, and the presence of British military and naval forces, have so far secured the lands to the white owners, and prevented general confiscation of property, and massacre of the few whites, still Jamaica and the other British West Indian colonies are totally ruined in regard to industry, production, and all social blessings.

If required, or suitable to the occasion, I could quote at greater length than all this article besides, testimony of facts, and statistical and official reports, going to show the utter ruin of industry and production in Hayti and the British colonies—the unquestionable results of the suppression of slavery. Many of such facts may be seen in the “Present State of Hayti,” written by James Franklin, an intelligent Englishman, and former resident—in Bigelow’s

"Notes on Jamaica," and extracts from official reports to the British Parliament, and from British (and anti-slavery) writers, inserted in Bledsoe's "Liberty and Slavery." I will give here, merely as examples, the following few short passages:

The sugar exported from St. Domingo, now Hayti, in 1789, was 672,000,000 lbs.; in 1806, it was 47,516,531 lbs.; in 1825, it was 2,020 lbs.; and in 1832, none. Franklin (whose book appeared as far back as 1810, even then) said: "There is every reason to apprehend that it (Hayti) will recede into irrecoverable insignificance, poverty, and disorder."

Bigelow, a Northern Abolitionist and negrophilist, says of Jamaica in 1850: "Capable, as it is, of producing almost everything, and actually producing nothing, which might not become a staple with a proper application of capital and skill, its inhabitants are miserably poor, and daily sinking deeper and deeper into the utter helplessness of abject want. Shipping has deserted her ports, her magnificent sugar and coffee plantations are running to weeds, her private dwellings are falling to decay, the comforts and luxuries which belong to industrial prosperity have been cut off, one by one, from her inhabitants, and the day, I think, is at hand when there will be none left to represent the wealth, intelligence, and hospitality for which the Jamaica planter was once distinguished."

Henry Carey, another Northern and anti-slavery writer, says: "It is impossible to read Mr. Bigelow's volume without arriving at the conclusion that the freedom granted to the negro has had little effect, except that of enabling him to live at the expense of the planter so long as anything remained. Sixteen years of freedom did not appear, to its author, to have 'advanced the dignity of labor, or of the laboring classes, one particle, while it had ruined the proprietors of the land.' Yet, while all Bigelow's facts go to prove these evils to be the result of the incurable indolence and improvidence of the freed negroes, so inveterate is his negrophilism that he ascribes their indolence and degradation to the continued residence of the few remaining whites, and looks to the removal of the latter as the proper remedy. And, in anticipating this future event, and the benefit of an unmixed negro population in the British West Indies, he also, with all complacency, and without any intimation of objection on his part, supposes that these islands will then form a portion of the United States—and, as must be inferred, as a part of their improved condition, must necessarily then be represented in Congress by negro delegates."

"The finest land in the world," says Bigelow, "may be had at any price, and almost for the asking." Labor "re-

ceives no compensation, and the product of labor does not seem to know how to find its way to market."

Mr. Robert Baird, A. M., (quoted by professor Bledsoe,) is an Englishman, and, like Bigelow, a strong approver of the previous emancipation of the slaves in the English colonies; and, like Bigelow, while he arrays numerous strong facts to show the ruinous results of that act, he ascribes the evil, not to the act itself, but to the want of some further supposed measures of reform. He says:

"Let any one who thinks that the extent and clamor of the complaint [of the former planters and proprietors] exceeds the magnitude of the distress which has called it forth, go to the West Indies and judge for himself. Let him see, with his own eyes, the neglected and abandoned estates, the uncultivated fields, fast hurrying back into a state of nature—the dismantled and silent machinery, the crumbling walls, and deserted mansions, which are familiar sights in most of the West Indian colonies. Let him, then, transport himself to the Spanish Islands of Porto Rico and Cuba, and witness the life and activity which in these slave colonies prevail. Let him observe for himself the activity of the slaves, the improvements daily making in the cultivation of the fields, and the processes carried on at the sugar mills, and the general indescribable air of thriving and prosperity which surrounds the whole," &c.

The degradation of British Guiana since, and because of emancipation, as shown in the Parliamentary and other official reports, is still worse. But I will quote no more, except a passage of general comment from the British historian, Alison: "The negroes," says he, "who, in a state of slavery, were comfortable and prosperous beyond any peasantry in the world, and rapidly approaching the condition of the most opulent serfs of Europe, have been, by an act of emancipation, irretrievably consigned to a state of barbarism." Yet, even with this admission, I presume that Alison, like every other Englishman of distinction, and of high reputation as an author or statesman, (excepting Carlyle only,) is an enemy of negro slavery, and a denouncer of the iniquity of slaveholding. With all this present unanimity of opposition to, and violent denunciation of, African slavery, the prediction may be ventured that a change of opinion is about to take place. Reason and truth will not much longer be kept out of sight by prejudiced and ignorant fanaticism, even in England and the Northern American States.

But with such proofs of entire failure of the emancipation scheme in the British colonies, and with thousands of like

facts that can be adduced from statistical and official reports, or testified by unimpeachable and intelligent witnesses, so besotted and blind is fanaticism, and so strongly does it cling to its first errors, and reject all light and truth, that a few men have dared to testify and to publish that the experiment has been eminently successful—that the lands had increased in price and in production—the negroes were industrious—even their former proprietors were benefitted and content, and that everything had been improved. J. J. Gurney, of England, first published an elaborate report of such false statements, to be on his personal examination; and his pamphlet was largely circulated, by anti-slavery advocates in the United States. Even within the last few months, the same general assertions were made by a speaker, without contradiction, in a public meeting in one of the Northern cities. This statement was matched by, if not copied from, the following, which was republished in the "African Repository," the organ of the Colonization Society in this country, without comment, or expression of even a doubt:

"THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.—At a meeting in London to take measures to present an appropriate testimonial to Dr. Livingstone, the African traveler, Mr. Montgomery Martin made the following statement: 'He had recently visited the West Indies to ascertain if the emancipation of the slaves had produced ruin there. He found there a free, happy, and prosperous population, [hear, hear;] and speaking commercially, the West Indies now yield more rum, sugar, and other produce, than they had ever done during the existence of slavery, [hear, hear.] Since the abolition of slavery in the West Indies, not a drop of blood was shed, not a single crime was committed—nor was there destruction of property throughout the whole of the West Indies.' [Cheers.]—*N. Y. Col. Jour.*

Robespierre, in the French Convention, when urging the emancipation of the slaves in St. Domingo, and in answer to predictions of opponents of the ruin that would follow, uttered the memorable sentiment, "Perish the colonies, rather than sacrifice one iota of our principles!" The Northern Abolitionists, our fellow-citizens and political "brethren," continue to reassert in effect, Robespierre's atrocious declaration, after they now well know, what their great exemplar, the bloody Robespierre, did not know, the wide-spread ruin and destruction that would follow the practical establishment of their dogma and purpose of negro emancipation. Their procedure says, louder than words could do, "Perish the wealth and all production of the Southern States, with all that refines, improves, and dignifies

mankind within their bounds ; perish there, the white race, men, women, and babes, by massacre, so that the negro slaves shall be freed ! Perish even Northern manufactures, commerce, and wealth, if dependent on the products of Southern slavery—and perish the industry, the comforts, the civilization, the morals, religion of the slaves, and even the slaves themselves, if to be necessarily caused by their receiving the gift of freedom !”

ART. III.—SOME CONSIDERATIONS RELATING TO SOUTHERN PROGRESS, CURRENCY, EXCHANGES, BANKS.

THE following manuscript was prepared by one of the Dallas county (Ala.) delegation to the late Southern Convention, and though referred to the Business Committee was not acted upon by them, but remained in the hands of the editor of this Review, who regards it well entitled to publication.

The chief object mentioned in the committee's address for assembling the Convention, is to endeavor to ascertain the cause of the decline of the foreign commerce of the Southern States, and to devise a plan to preserve to the use of the South the benefit of its earnings; which, by some process unknown to the committee, chiefly injures to Northern and foreign States, who, unaware themselves of the source of their unearned prosperity, and through an exhibition of costless benevolence to negroes, with a view of a further gain of supposed Providential favor, aim “to kill the goose that lays for them the golden eggs.”

The president of the convention of 1856, in his inaugural, informed the delegations assembled, that so far as had been disclosed by members of the previous conventions, the *cause* of the evils, and the proper remedies to be applied to remove them, remained a *problem* yet to be solved.

The committee for 1858 regrets to have occasion to announce to the public that thus far its hopes (in the efficacy of conventions) have not been realized ; while the predictions of ill success by opponents, who deemed, perhaps, the proceedings of previous conventions to be inapplicable to the case, have, to some extent, been verified.

The president of the last convention invites delegates to the ensuing one to come prepared to discuss and to report upon six divisions of topics submitted by him. As to the second division, it is sufficient to pass by it with the understanding that it is the duty of a Southern convention to endeavor to preserve to the South the value of its property and productions ; also to act with a view of enabling the South to obtain as high rates of value for what it sells, as the rates—by some

artifice always making them still higher—for what the South needs to buy.

As well might delegates of the fraternity of lawyers and newspaper publishers, propose to import from Europe, for their benefit, such a number of lawyers and publishers, of equal or superior capacity, to divide with them the emoluments of their existing business, and render it worthless to both parties, as for the same professional or non-producing class, in legislatures and conventions, to propose to benefit the producing classes of the South by importing laborers from Africa, who can add nothing to sectional strength or power—as from an acquisition of white emigrants or citizens—but who can become rivals in production to the extent of impoverishing both the rivals and the rivaled, and operate, at the expense of the South, only to promote the welfare of Northern and foreign manufacturers, speculators, and consumers, by supplying them with indispensable commodities, much below the then no less continued high cost of production.

The non-producing class in Congress, legislatures, and elsewhere can effect a great deal for themselves at the expense of the producing class, by their usual course of circumvention; but they cannot change the course of nature, nor prevent an increased quantity of one or more commodities to be given in exchange for one or more of other commodities not so increased, nor compelled to be so exchanged, from having the effect to reduce the value of the former to a manifold greater degree than the excess of its quantity. Therefore it is manifest, that success in such projects would be adding fuel to the flame, without relieving the South from a single one of existing causes of exhaustion.

The topics mentioned in the third division are the only ones applicable, when judicially managed, to effect the alleged objects of the convention. The writer not expecting to meet others in council, but being desirous to be useful to the delegation to which he was appointed a member, he submits to its consideration some matters relating to the said third division, in the hope of aiding it in the solution of the before-mentioned *problem*.

The annual transactions in buying and selling in the United States amounts, by a late estimate, to \$2,000,000,000. To exemplify by contrast, it may be mentioned that the portion of sales pertaining to agriculturists in the Northern States, is generally distributed throughout the year, which causes more stability in value than otherwise. This stability naturally proceeds from the farmers' habits there of making their business or fiscal year to begin in the spring, (on the 1st of May in many States;) at which time annual running accounts,

contracts for the purchase of property, negotiation and return of loans, &c., become payable. By simply adapting their pecuniary and some other affairs to what unchangeable nature makes most convenient and advantageous to them : that of cultivating in the summer, gathering in the fall, preparing the bulk of their products for sale in the winter, and making payments when the realization of their means is most available—producers there have most of the year under control, by which to supply their products direct to the regular consumptive demand without having occasion to make premature sales to meet matured engagements. By this arrangement of their pecuniary affairs they vest themselves with power of millions of dollars value to them : that of withholding their products from sale, when emergencies require it, till speculators or consumers find it to their interest to comply with terms more remunerating, than at the reduced rates of an overstocked market.

The portion of sales pertaining to agriculture in the Southern States is mostly compressed within the space of a few months, and the value of them is subject to numerous and violent fluctuations, effected mostly at the will of foreign missionary operators, acting under State chartered privileges ; without which, their power, of ever changing relative values to the South's loss and to their private gain, would cease in a nineteenth degree. The producers power of defense or counteraction is made void by their adopting as their own, the business year of speculators in raw materials, which begins with the gathering of the crops ; and which was originally, and continues to be enforced on numerous producers, who place themselves in a position of requiring advances or loans, which only can be obtained from the missionary agencies, on condition of their being refunded at the regular organized time, that crops are sacrificed for the purpose. The forcing in the market of consumption, a sale of a third of the crop at the early portion of its gathering, for the purpose of discharging nearly all the obligations incurred during the preceding twelve months, when only a sixth portion of the crop is needed for consumption within the two months of the third or more being sold, has the natural effect of reducing the value one-third, not only of the third to be sold, but also of the remaining two-thirds of the crop ; for the reason that when two quantities of commodities of equal labor value must be disposed of to obtain another equal labor value, which is all that is applicable to be exchanged at the time, the latter appreciates in relative value to what it lacks in quantity, unless extraneous speculations intervene to cause the relative proportions to vary. Hence, in some years cotton is worth twelve

cents, in the latter part of summer, and soon after declines to eight cents; another time from fifteen to ten cents, and last year from sixteen, very suddenly, to nine, and subsequently, about Christmas, to eight, and prices only revived again by crops being withheld from sale. Buyers, whether foreign manufacturers, agents, or others, generally continue the depression when practicable, till the greater part of the crop be disposed of by the producers, when a competition ensues between speculators and manufacturers, with the latter aiming to keep the raw material of their manufacture perpetually depressed in value. At a less compensation for labor than is paid for American imports, the present exports of the South would exceed in relative or intrinsic value, two hundred millions of dollars; the one-third of this stricken off in consequence of a temporary premature supply being forced on the market of sale, amounts to upwards of sixty-six millions of dollars. This annual item of the South's avoidable loss, is worthy the attention of the Convention. By the members resolving (and performing) to perseveringly agitate the subject among their several constituencies, the latter will be induced some future first of May to liquidate their running accounts of the previous four months with stipulating to pay that amount at the time impliedly agreed on; and also stipulate, that running accounts, after such liquidation, and all subsequent time, contracts shall not become payable previous to the ensuing first of May. The merchants will cheerfully accede to such an arrangement; not only because they can as well arrange their purchase and payments accordingly, but also because their convenience and interests will be promoted; inasmuch as, by their customers realizing more value for their exports on an average than otherwise, they will be the better enabled to purchase more in quantity of consumable commodities both for cash and on time, and to meet their engagements often before maturity, and generally more than promptly otherwise.

Another topic on the third division is that of banks, and this necessarily includes currency; and this being the moving power of the vast machinery organized, by which relative values are changed, and the earnings of industry of all commercial nations made tributary to the foreign millionaire and trafficking managers, and to others incidently participating, your attention is specially required to investigate its operations.

Human labor is the *standard* of commercial value. National coin, by containing within itself the quantity of human labor required to produce it, is the *measure* of value of any other commodity containing within itself a like quantity of labor to

produce it; and an exchange of one for the other is equitable, so far as labor value is concerned. When mere means, containing a certain quantity of labor, be used to procure anything containing a less quantity of labor, such exchanges are said to be made according to their *relative value*, or relative quantity of each, or to the supply and demand of either.

The estimated quantity of gold obtainable in a month on an average, by one engaged in washing it from sands or extracting it from ores, was directed by the American Congress to be coined in one piece as a measure of value, and to be called an eagle. This, at twenty-five working days to the month, with some allowance for bad weather, sickness, holydays, &c., apportioned forty cents per day of our currency, as compensation to gold diggers for their services.

From time immemorial, European nations estimated the labor in producing the same weight of materials for coin to be worth about thirty-six cents per day of their labor, and in their currency under a different name. Hence, the sterling or sovereign of England rates in the United States at \$4 80, and in England at \$4 44 of our currency.

Whether the variation of the rates of value of labor in the two countries was made to facilitate the organization of a decimal currency, (which, *by the by*, however good in itself, has always proved discordant and cumbersome when applied to the retained *octave* subdivisions of weights and measures, which also should have been, and ought to be made decimal,) or whether it proceeded from the intention of influencing the importation and retention of a greater quantity of gold for circulation, which was counteracted by the other nations appropriating the difference in premiums to themselves, the addition of the four cents, as extra compensation to gold diggers, would result in a great loss to the exporting States by the nine per cent. difference being added to the invoice cost of the imports that are received as payments for the exports, unless reconteracted by alloys in American coin.

As an illustration of how intrinsic can be changed into relative value, and they operate to transfer the earnings of one people to another without an adequate equivalent, we need only to partially examine the course of trade between England and the United States, and they with each other.

When Sir Robert Peel administered the government of England, he, for numerous reasons of State policy, induced the wealthy class to consent to measures that would tend to cause surplus money to be loaned abroad instead of at home; and as one to confine the Bank of England issues to the amount of specie on hand and to the amount of some government stocks, for which, by a sale of it, specie could at any

be substituted; and as another, that no more bank charters should be granted nor any renewed, and those in existence restricted in their issues to not much over their coin on hand; and as another, that money should generally bear a very low rate of interest, which now is about two to two and a half per cent. for loans on call and on stock security.

In order to obtain interest, or a higher interest, on their money, as well as to accomplish the ends intended, loans have been freely made in the countries with which England traded. To this end, and for the purpose of controlling values of what the English traders sell and buy, a majority of the stock in bank charters, in all the principal places of trade in the United States and elsewhere, were bought up.

The borrowing, non-producing, trafficking, and speculating class, in other countries than England, were thus supplied with means of speculating, and of buying and consuming foreign goods, which only the producers of the exports had the means of buying or exchanging their productions for before. In consequence of this money-lending from abroad, through the agency of banks—on pledges of property of either principals or securities, purchases of State stocks, railroad bonds, &c., from the expenditure of which wages were given to employers, &c.—two sets of purchasers, the producing and non-producing, with two supplies of means, were placed in competition to purchase the one supply of foreign commodities, which proportionately diminished the values of the money of both; or, in traffickers' lingo, *raised the price* of foreign commodities.

On the other hand, by the English circulating no more money at home than is needed as a medium, by which to exchange an average day's work in gold digging for an average day's work in cotton, tobacco, naval stores producing, or for the same quantity of labor in productions of any other kind wanted for consumption, they necessarily sell at a comparatively low price.

The English money lenders, by receiving their interest from abroad, and not lending their money to idlers and speculators on other's industry at home, added to their own and to their communities' advantage in the saving of expenses by buying the productions of other nations, lower in consequence, to a much larger sum than the interest received from them amounted to; and by lending their money abroad, they enhanced the value of their communities' exportable productions to much more than the loaned money amounted to.

By lending money to the Americans, and multiplying it many folds with bank paper, the English obtain the products of a large quantity of American labor for the products of a

small quantity of their labor—the actual or real money, (coin,) and much more repeatedly, returns to the English community in the shape of profits on trade, and a portion of it is re-lent from time to time, both to keep up the price of their productions in the American market of a multiplied paper currency, and prevent it being used at home to raise prices of American productions, which, in consequence, are sold, according to their relative value, with the small quantity of specie applied to purchase them at the rate of the consumptive demand.

American legislators are very zealous in promoting Sir Robert Peel's English policy, by annually chartering paper currency, issuing and loaning establishments, which lately numbered fourteen hundred in the United States, whose issues were estimated last year to be about six hundred millions of dollars, and acting as a substitute for fifty-eight millions of coin withheld from circulation.

The American Southern States are remarkably favorable to Sir Robert Peel's movement, by their not only supplying the English, and others, with from one hundred and fifty to two hundred millions of dollars value of toilsome earned exports, according to their low rates of value, in a currency restricted to specie abroad, but also find the *money*, such as it is, and consisting of evidences of individual debts, in note-swapping, for others to buy their own produce with. And this leads to a much greater mark of favor, both to the European and Northern States, by leaving the coin that they should receive for their produce at the North, to form a basis of issues of the free banks, and thus further sink the value of the South's labor and productions; or, which is the same thing, the coin value at which the product of the labor was estimated.

The Northern States import, for their consumption, a hundred millions of dollars, at their own expanded paper currency valuation, worth of foreign goods more than—at a specie rate of consumptive demand abroad—they have exports to pay for. The Southern States export abroad, say, a hundred millions of dollars more than they import, which balances the account, so far as it goes, between all the States with foreign nations. For the amount paid for the North abroad by the South, out of its produce at a low rate of value, in a currency restricted in its use to the exchanges of our labor value for another of equal labor value, the North sells to the South foreign and Northern goods, estimated to be worth, in the relative quantities of currency and commodities prevailing, a like sum of one hundred millions of dollars, which balances accounts between the North and South; but which quantity of foreign and Northern goods, in the absence of the artificial values which the South contributes to—by not taking the specie

home that she is entitled to from the sale of her products—would not be estimated at a third of the amount; which is another sixty-six million of dollars of annual loss, occasioned chiefly by the South's using a paper currency, not being a substitute for coin to the same amount being withdrawn and withheld from circulation in its stead.

From the causes above alluded to—and some others very prominent, which Southern legislation is the origin of—it may be perceived by what artifices fleets of empty ships annually enter Southern ports to convey away thousands of cargoes of the most valuable agricultural and other productions, with leaving nothing in return, or, as a consideration, but the ballast salt of the ships and some orders on consumers of foreign goods in other places, to pay for the latter in supplying the South with the necessary commodities, or means of continuing production.

This disastrous course of trade to the Southern States, proceeds from their and other States grossly violating the Constitution, in substituting a prohibited in lieu of an established currency. Being that there is no dependence on the non-producing class of law-makers in legislatures to retrace their steps, there appears to be no remedy or relief for the South, whether in or out of the Union, except through the present (not a future, Seward) Supreme Court. A case might be brought before it in this way: say an executor of an estate, or an assignee of an insolvent, should refuse to pay a claim on them from a bank, on the ground that the claim is founded in a swapping of notes—that is, that the plaintiff exchanged his circulating currency notes for defendant's larger note of hand—and the bank sues to recover, the court could not otherwise decide than that the transaction was illegal and void, because circulating notes were bills of credit, as defined by lexicographers, which the Constitution prohibits with such a decision, ninety-nine in every hundred of the banks would shut up shop, as they have nothing to lend but their own manufacture of currency notes, which, then, nobody would borrow or receive.

ART. IV.—DR. CARTWRIGHT ON THE CAUCASIANS AND THE AFRICANS.

SEVERAL years ago we published some original and ingenious views of Dr. Cartwright, of New Orleans, upon the subject of negroes and their characteristics. The matter is more elaborately treated by him in the following paper:

The Nilotic monuments furnish numerous portraits of the negro races, represented as slaves, sixteen hundred years before the Christian era. Although repeatedly drawn from

their native barbarism and carried among civilized nations, they soon forget what they learn and relapse into barbarism. If the inherent potency of the prognathous type of mankind had been greater than it actually is, sufficiently great to give it the independence of character that the American Indian possesses, the world would have been in a great measure deprived of cotton and sugar. The red man is unavailable as a laborer in the cane or cotton field, or anywhere else, owing to the unalterable ethical laws of his character. The white man cannot endure toil under the burning sun of the cane and cotton field, and live to enjoy the fruits of his labor. The African will starve rather than engage in a regular system of agricultural labor, unless impelled by the stronger will of the white man. When thus impelled, experience proves that he is much happier, during the hours of labor in the sunny fields, than when dozing in his native woods and jungles. He is also eminently qualified for a number of employments, which the instincts of the white man regard as degrading. If the white man be forced by necessity into employments abhorrent to his instincts, it tends to weaken or destroy that sentiment or principle of honor or duty, which is the mainspring of heroic actions, from the beginning of historical times to the present, and is the basis of everything great and noble in all grades of white society.

The importance of having those particular employments, regarded as servile and degrading by the white man, attended to by the black race, whose instincts are not repugnant to them, will be at once apparent to all those who deem the sentiment of honor or duty as worth cultivating in the human breast. It is utterly unknown to the prognathous race of mankind, and has no place in their language. When the language is given to them they cannot comprehend its meaning, or form a conception of what is meant by it. Every white man, who has not been degraded, had rather be engaged in the most laborious employments, than to serve as a lacquey or body servant to another white man or being like himself. Whereas, there is no office which the negro or mulatto covets more than that of being a body servant to a real gentleman. There is no office which gives him such a high opinion of himself, and it is utterly impossible for him to attach the idea of degradation to it. Those identical offices, which the white man instinctively abhors, are the most greedily sought for by negroes and mulattoes, whether slave or free, in preference to all other employments. North or South, free or slave, they are ever at the elbow, behind the table, in hotels and steamboats; ever ready, with brush in hand, to brush the coat or black the shoes, or to perform any menial service

which may be required, and to hold out the open palm for the dime. The innate love to act as body servant or lacquey is too strongly developed in the negro race to be concealed. It admirably qualifies them for waiters and house servants, as their strong muscles, hardy frames, and the positive pleasure that labor in a hot sun confers on them, abundantly qualify them for agricultural employment in a hot climate.

Hence, the primordial cell germ of the Nigritian has no more potency than what is sufficient to form a being with physical power, when its dynamism becomes exhausted, dropping the creature in the wilderness with the mental organization too imperfect to enable him to extricate himself from barbarism. If Nature had intended the prognathous race for barbarism as the end and object of their creation, they would have been like lions and tigers, fierce and untamable. So far from being like ferocious beasts, they are endowed with a will so weak, passions so easily subdued, and dispositions so gentle and affectionate, as readily to fall under subjection to the wild Arab, or any other race of men. Hence they are led about in gangs of an hundred or more by a single individual, even by an old man, or a cripple, if he be of the white race and possessed of a strong will. The Nigritian has such little command over his own muscles, from the weakness of his will, as almost to starve, when a little exertion and forethought would procure him an abundance. Although he has exaggerated appetites and exaggerated senses, calling loudly for their gratification, his will is too weak to command his muscles to engage in such kinds of labor as would readily procure the fruits to gratify them. Like an animal in a state of hibernation, waiting for the external aid of spring to warm it into life and power, so does the negro continue to doze out of a vegeto-animal existence in the wilderness, unable to extricate himself therefrom—his own will being too feeble to call forth the requisite muscular exertion. His muscles not being exercised, the respiration is imperfect, and the blood is imperfectly vitalized. Torpidity of body and hebetude of mind are the effects thereof, which disappear under bodily labor, because that expands the lungs, vitalizes the blood, and wakes him up to a sense of pleasure and happiness unknown to him in the vegeto-animal or hibernating state. Nothing but will is wanting to transform the torpid, unhappy tenant of the wilderness into a rational and happy thing—the happiest being on earth, as far as sensual pleasures are concerned.

The white man has an exaggerated will, more than he has use for; because it frequently drives his own muscles beyond their physical capacity of endurance. The will is not a faculty confined within the periphery of the body. It cannot, like the

imagination, travel to immeasurable distances from the body, and in an instant of time go and return from Aldabran, or beyond the boundaries of the solar system. Its flight is confined to the world and to limits more or less restricted—the less restricted in some than in others. The will has two powers—direct and indirect. It is the direct motive power of the muscular system. It indirectly exerts a dynamic force upon surrounding objects when associated with knowledge. It gives to knowledge its power. Everything that is made was made by the Infinite Will associated with infinite knowledge. The will of man is but a spark of the Infinite Will, and its power is only circumscribed by his knowledge. A man possessing a knowledge of the negro character can govern a hundred, a thousand, or ten thousand of the prognathous race by his will alone, easier than one ignorant of that character can govern a single individual of that race by the whip or a club. However disinclined to labor the negroes may be, they cannot help themselves; they are obliged to move and to exercise their muscles when the white man, acquainted with their character, *wills* that they should do so. They cannot resist that will, so far as labor of body is concerned. If they resist, it is from some other cause than that connected with their daily labor. They have an instinctive feeling of obedience to the stronger will of the white man, requiring nothing more than moderate labor. So far, their instincts compel obedience to will as one of his rights. Beyond that, they will resist his will and be refractory, if he encroaches on what they regard as their rights, viz: the right to hold property in him as he does in them, and to disburse that property to them in the shape of meat, bread and vegetables, clothing, fuel and house-room, and attention to their comforts when sick, old, infirm, and unable to labor; to hold property in him as a conservator of the peace among themselves, and a protector against trespassers from abroad, whether black or white; to hold property in him as impartial judge and an honest jury to try them for offences, and a merciful executioner to punish them for violations of the usages of the plantation or locality.

With those rights acceded to them, no other compulsion is necessary to make them perform their daily tasks than *his will be done*. It is not the whip, as many suppose, which calls forth those muscular exertions, the result of which is sugar, cotton, breadstuffs, rice, and tobacco. These are products of the white man's will, acting through the muscles of the prognathous race in our Southern States. If that will were withdrawn, and the plantations handed over as a gracious gift to the laborers, agricultural labor would cease for the want of that spiritual power called the will, to move those ma-

chines—the muscles. They would cease to move here, as they have in Hayti. If the prognathous race were expelled the land, and their place supplied with double their number of white men, agricultural labor in the South would also cease, as far as sugar and cotton are concerned, for the want of muscles that could endure exercise in the smothering heat of a cane or cotton field. Half the white laborers of Illinois are prostrated with fevers from a few days' work in stripping blades in a Northern cornfield, owing to the confinement of the air by the close proximity of the plants. Cane and cotton plants form a denser foliage than corn—a thick jungle, where the white man pants for breath, and is overpowered by the heat of the sun at one time of day, and chilled by the dews and moisture of the plants at another. Negroes glory in a close, hot atmosphere; they instinctively cover their heads and faces with a blanket at night, and prefer lying with their heads to the fire, instead of their feet. This ethnical peculiarity is in harmony with their efficiency as laborers in hot, damp, close, suffocating atmosphere—where instead of suffering and dying, as the white man would, they are healthier, happier and more prolific than in their native Africa—producing, under the white man's will, a great variety of agricultural products, besides upwards of three millions of bales of cotton, and three hundred thousand hogsheads of sugar. Thus proving that subjection to his will is normal to them, because, under the influence of his will, they enjoy life more than in any other condition, rapidly increase in numbers, and steadily rise in the scale of humanity.

The power of a stronger will over a weaker, or the power of one living creature to act on and influence another, is an ordinance of nature, which has its parallel in the inorganic kingdom, where ponderous bodies, widely separated in space, influence one another so much as to keep up a constant interplay of action and reaction throughout nature's vast realms. The same ordinance which keeps the spheres in their orbits and holds the satellites in subordination to the planets, is the ordinance that subjects the negro race to the empire of the white man's will. From that ordinance the snake derives its power to charm the bird, and the magician his power to amuse the curious, to astonish the vulgar, and to confound the wisdom of the wise. Under that ordinance, our four millions of negroes are as unalterably bound to obey the white man's will, as the four satellites of Jupiter the superior magnetism of that planet. If individual masters, by releasing individual negroes from the power of their will, cannot make them free or release them from subordination to the instinctive public sentiment or will of the aggregate white population,

which as rigidly excludes them, in the so-called free States, from the drawing room and parlor as it does pots and kettles and other kinds of kitchen furniture. The subjugation of equals by artifice or force is tyranny or slavery; but there is no such thing in the United States, because equals are on a perfect equality here. The subordination of the Nigritian to the Caucasian would never have been imagined to be a condition similar to European slavery, if any regard had been paid to ethnology. Subordination of the inferior race to the superior is a normal, and not a forced condition. Chains and standing armies are the implements used to force the obedience of equals to equals—of one white man to another. Whereas, the obedience of the Nigritian to the Caucasian is *spontaneous* because it is normal for the weaker will to yield obedience to the stronger. The ordinance which subjects the negro to the empire of the white man's will, was plainly written on the heavens during our Revolutionary war. It was then that the power of the united will of the American people rose to its highest degree of intensity.

Every colony was a slave-holding colony excepting one; yet the people, particularly that portion of them residing in districts where the black population was greatest, hastened to meet in the battle-field the powerful British armies in front of them, and the interminable hosts of Indian warriors in the wilderness behind them, leaving their wives and children, their old men and cripples, for seven long years, *to their negroes to take care of*. Did the slaves, many of whom were savages recently imported from Africa, butcher them, as white or Indian slaves surely would have done, and fly to the enemy's standard for the liberty, land, money, rum, savage luxuries and ample protection so abundantly promised and secured to all who would desert their master's families? History answers that not one in a thousand joined their masters' enemies; but, on the contrary, they continued quietly their daily labors, even in those districts where they outnumbered the white population ten to one. They not only produced sufficient breadstuffs to supply the families of their masters, but a surplus of flour, pork, and beef was sent up from the slave-holding districts of Virginia to Washington's starving army in Pennsylvania. (See Botta's History.) These agricultural products were created by savages, naturally so indolent in their native Africa, as to prefer to live on ant eggs and caterpillars rather than labor for a subsistence; but for years in succession they continued to labor in the midst of their masters' enemies—dropping their hoes when they saw the red coats, running to tell their mistress, and to conduct her and the children through by-paths to avoid the

British troopers, and when the enemy were out of sight returning to their work again. The sole cause of their industry and fidelity is due to the spiritual influence of the white race over the black.

The empire of the white man's will over the prognathous race is not absolute, however. It cannot force exercise beyond a certain speed; neither the will nor physical force can drive negroes, for a number of days in succession, beyond a very moderate daily labor—about one third less than the white man voluntarily imposes on himself. If force be used to make them do more, they invariably do less and less, until they fall into a state of impassivity, in which they are more plague than profit—worthless as laborers, insensible and indifferent to punishment, or even to life; or, in other words, they fall into the disease which I have named *Dysesthesia Ethiopica*, characterized by hebetude of mind and insensibility of body, caused by over-working and bad treatment. Some knowledge of the ethnology of the prognathous race is absolutely necessary for the prevention and cure of this malady in all its various forms and stages. *Dirt eating*, or *Cachexia Africana*, is another disease, like *Dysesthesia Ethiopica*, growing out of ethnical elements peculiar to the prognathous race. The ethnical elements assimilating the negro to the mule, although giving rise to the last named disease, are of vast importance to the prognathous race, because they guaranty to that race an ample protection against the abuses of arbitrary power. A white man, like a blooded horse, can be worked to death. Not so the negro, whose ethnical elements, like the mule, restrict the limits of arbitrary power over him.

Among the four millions of the prognathous race in the United States, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to find a single individual negro, whom the white man, armed with arbitrary power, has ever been able to make hurt himself at work. It is beyond the power of the white man to drive the negro into this long continued and excessive muscular exertions such as the white laborers of Europe often impose upon themselves to satisfy a greedy boss, under fear of losing their places, and thereby starving themselves and families. Throughout England, nothing is more common than decrepitude, premature old age, and a frightful list of diseases, caused by long continued and excessive muscular exertion. Whereas, all America can scarcely furnish an example of the kind among the prognathous race. The white men of America have performed many prodigies, but they have never yet been able to make a negro overwork himself.

There are other elements peculiar to the Nigritian, on which

the disease, called negro consumption, or Cachexia Africana, depends. But these belong to that class which subject the negro to the white man's spiritual empire over him. When that spiritual empire is not maintained in all its entirety, or in other words, when the negro is badly governed, he is apt to fall under the spiritual influence of the artful and designing of his own color, and Cachexia Africana, or consumption, is the consequence. Better throw medicine to the dogs, than give it to a negro patient impressed with the belief that he has walked over poison specially laid for him, or been in some other way tricked or conjured. He will surely die, unless treated in accordance with his ethnological peculiarities, and the hallucination expelled.

There never has been an insurrection of the prognathous race against their masters; and from the nature of the ethnical elements of that race, there never can be. Hayti is no exception, it will be seen when the true history of the so-called insurrection of that island is written. There have been neighborhood disturbances and bloodshed, caused by fanaticism, and by mischievous white men getting among them and infusing their will into them, or mesmerizing them. But, fortunately, there is an ethnological law of their nature which estops the evil influence of such characters by limiting their influence strictly to personal acquaintances. The prognathous tribes in every place and country are jealous and suspicious of all strangers, black or white, and have ever been so.

Prior to the emancipation act in the British West Indies, the famous Exeter Hall Junto sent out a number of emissaries of the East India Company to Jamaica, in the garb of missionaries. After remaining a year or two in the assumed character of Christian ministers, they began to preach insurrectionary doctrines, and caused a number of so-called insurrections to break out simultaneously in different parts of the island. The insurgents in every neighborhood were confined to the personal acquaintances of the Exeter Hall miscreants, who succeeded in infusing their will only into those who had listened to their incendiary harangues. This was proved upon them by the genuine missionaries, who had long been on the island, and had gathered into their various churches a vast number of converts. For, in no instance, did a single convert, or any other negro, join in the numerous insurrectionary movements who had not been personally addressed by the wolves in sheep's clothing. The Christian missionaries, particularly the Methodists, Baptist, Moravians, and Catholics, were very exact in collecting the evidence of this most important ethnological truth, in consequence of some of the

planters, at the first outbreak, having confounded them with the Exeter Hall incendiaries.

The planters finally left the Christian missionaries and their flocks undisturbed, but proceeded to expel the false missionaries, to hang their converts, and to burn down their chapels. The event proved that they were wrong in not hanging the white incendiaries; because they went home to England, preached a crusade—traveling all over the United Kingdom—proclaiming, as they went, that they had left God's houses in flames throughout Jamaica, and God's people hanging like dogs from the trees in that sinful island. This so inflamed public sentiment in Great Britain against the planters, as to unite all parties in loud calls for the immediate passage of the emancipation act. There is good reason to believe that the English ministry, in view of the probable effect of that measure on the United States, and the encouragement it would afford to the culture of sugar and other tropical products in the East Indies and Mauritius, had previously determined to make negro freedom a leading measure in British policy, well knowing that its effect would be to Africanize the sugar and cotton growing regions of America. The ethnology of the prognathous race does not stop at proving that subordination to the white race is its normal condition. It goes further, and proves that social and political equality is abnormal to it, whether educated or not. Neither negroes nor mulattoes know how to use power when given to them. They always use it capriciously and tyrannically. Tschudi, a Swiss naturalist, (see Tschudi's Travels in Peru, London, 1848,) says, "that in Lima and Peru generally, the free negroes are a plague to society. Dishonesty seems to be a part of their very nature. Free born negroes, admitted into the houses of wealthy families, and have received, in early life, a good education, and treated with kindness and liberality, do not differ from their uneducated brother."

Tschudi is mistaken in supposing that dishonesty is too deeply rooted in the negro character to be removed. They are dishonest when in the abnormal condition without a master. They are also dishonest when in a state of subordination, called slavery, badly provided for and not properly disciplined and governed. But when properly disciplined, instructed, and governed, and their animal wants provided for, it would be difficult to find a more honest, faithful, and trustworthy people than they are. When made contented and happy, as they always should be, they reflect their master in their thoughts, morals, and religion, or at least they are desirous of being like him. They imitate him in everything, as far as their imitative faculties, which are very strong, will carry

them. They take a pride in his wealth, or in anything which distinguishes him, as if they formed a part of himself, as they really do, being under the influence of his will, and in some measure assimilated, in their spiritual nature, to him—loving him with all the warm and devoted affection which children manifest to their parents. He is sure of their love and friendship, although all the world may forsake him. But to create and maintain this happy relation, he must govern them with strict reference to their ethnological peculiarities. He must treat them as inferiors, not as equals, as they are not satisfied with equality, and will despise a master who attempts to raise any one or more of them to an equality with himself; because they become jealous and suspicious that their master's favorites will exercise a sinister influence over him against them.

Impartiality of treatment in every particular, down to a hat or pair of shoes, is what they all regard as one of their dearest rights. Hence, any special favors or gifts to one, is an offense to all the rest. They also regard as a right, when punished, not to be punished in anger, but with cool deliberation. They will run from an angry or enraged master or overseer, armed with a gun or a pistol. They regard all overseers who come into the field armed with deadly weapons as cowards, and all cowards have great difficulty in governing them. It is not physical force which keeps them in subjection, but the spiritual force of the white man's will. One unarmed brave man can manage a thousand by the moral force of his will alone, much better than an hundred cowards with guns in their hands. They also require as a right when punished, to be punished with a switch or a whip, and not with a stick or the fist. In this particular the ethnical law of their nature is different from all other races of men. It is exactly the reverse of that of the American Indian. The Indian will murder any man who strikes him with a switch, a cowhide, or a whip, twenty years afterwards, if he gets an opportunity; but readily forgets blows, however severe, inflicted on him with the fist, a cudgel, or a tomahawk. A remarkable ethnological peculiarity of the prognathous race is, that any deserved punishment, inflicted on them with a switch, cowhide, or whip, puts them into good humor with themselves and the executioner of the punishment, provided he manifest satisfaction by regarding the offense as stoned for.

The negro requires government in everything, the most minute. The Indian, on the contrary, submits to government in nothing whatever. Mr. Jefferson was the first to notice this ethnical law of the red man. (See his letter to Gilmer, June 7, 1816, vol. iv, page 279, Jefferson's Correspondence.)

"Every man with them," (the Indians,) says Mr. Jefferson, "is perfectly free to follow his own inclinations; but if, in doing this, he violates the rights of another, he is punished by the disesteem of society or tomahawked. Their leaders conduct them by the influence of their characters only; and they follow or not, as they please, him of whose character, for wisdom or war, they have the highest opinion, but, of all things, they least think of subjecting themselves to the will of one man." Whereas the black man requires government even in his meat and drink, his clothing, and hours of repose. Unless under the government of one man to prescribe rules of conduct to guide him, he will eat too much meat and not enough of bread and vegetables; he will not dress to suit the season, or kind of labor he is engaged in, nor retire to rest in due time to get sufficient sleep, but sit up and doze by the fire nearly all night. Nor will the women undress the children and put them regularly to bed. Nature is no law unto them. They let their children suffer and die, or unmercifully abuse them, unless the white man or woman prescribe rules in the nursery for them to go by. Whenever the white woman superintends the nursery, whether the climate be cold or hot, they increase faster than any other people on the globe; but on large plantations, remote from her influence, the negro population invariably diminishes, unless the overseer take upon himself those duties in the lying-in and nursery department, which on small estates are attended to by the mistress. She often sits up at night with sick children and administers to their wants, when their own mothers are nodding by them, and would be sound asleep if it were not for her presence. The care that white women bestow on the nursery, is one of the principal causes why three hundred thousand Africans, originally imported into the territory of the United States, have increased to four millions, while in the British West Indies the number imported exceeded, by several millions, the actual population. It is also the cause why the small proprietors of negro property in Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri are able to supply the loss on the large Southern plantations, which are cut off from the happy influence of the presiding genius over civilization, morality, and population—the white woman.

The prognathous race require government also in their religious exercises, or they degenerate into fanatical saturnalia. A discreet white man or woman should always be present to regulate their religious meetings.

Here the investigation into the ethnology of the prognathous race must close, at least for the present, leaving the most interesting part, Fetechism, the indigenous religion of

the African tribes, untouched. It is the key to the negro character, which is difficult to learn from mere experience. Those who are not accustomed to them have great trouble and difficulty in managing negroes; and in consequence thereof treat them badly. If their ethnology was better and more generally understood, their value would be greatly increased, and their condition, as a laboring class, would be more enviable, compared to the European peasants, than it already is.

ART. V.—GARDENING.*

It is said that a Chinese map of the world is covered with China. How delightful the idea of unfolding one covered with a garden! And is it not possible for man, in gratitude to that being who has made all nature “beauty to his eye,” to realize this charming illusion, so that “every drop of rain which cometh from heaven and watereth the earth, shall make it bring forth and bud?” The Lord himself planted the first garden, and appointed Adam to dress and to keep it, as an employment meet for the purity and perfection in which he was created. Amidst the blossoms of Eden, and under the shade of its bowers, did woman receive the breath of life, full of joy and fragrance. Such an abode was deemed worthy of the few innocent days of yet unfallen man, and the first fruits of his disobedience was to be forever banished from its goodly precincts. Milton represents as the first object of Eve’s lament, on hearing the sentence pronounced by Michael, those flowers “which she had bred up with her tender hand;” and nothing can be more pathetic than the apostrophe with which she takes her last look of them.

Not only as spreading a mantle of beauty over the scenes of industry and cultivation, has a garden ever been the favorite resort of man, and its employments been sought both for duty and relaxation, but the luxuriance it unfolds, the tranquillity it inspires, the odors it diffuses, the harmony it breathes, the diversity it embraces, the health it promotes, and, above all, its unceasing repetition of hopes and enjoyments, of promises and fulfilments, have made it in all ages the favorite of the poet, and afforded him an exhaustless field of imagery and illustration. Who has not read of the famed gardens of Alcinous, and the golden orchards of the Hesperides? Who, amidst the creations of mythology, has not beheld Dryads and Hamadryads guarding every walk and sporting in every shade? Flora lends her blushes to the blossoms of spring,

* By Charles Fraser, of Charleston, South Carolina.

Pomona and Ceres display the golden treasures of autumn, and Faunus receives even the tribute of winter.

"*Spargit agrestes tibi sylva frondes.*"

The prophets of old culled from a garden many of their most beautiful and striking allusions. The divine object of Isaiah's predictions was figuratively styled a "stem and a branch, and through him it was foretold" that the wilderness should rejoice, and the waste ground should be glad, and flourish as the rose. Solomon, in his prophetic inspirations, addresses the Savior of the world as "the Rose of Sharon,—the lily of the valleys,—the fountain of the garden;" and again, in all the pomp of Eastern imagery, he describes "his cheeks as a bed of roses, and as sweet flowers;" and so in Ezekiel, "the land that was desolate is become like the garden of Eden."

It is remarkable that a garden was the scene of that Savior's last solemn act of devotion, "whither," we are told, "he had oftentimes resorted with his disciples." And we know, that conformably to an ancient custom of the Israelites, the sepulchre in which he was laid was also in a garden. This is alluded to on account of the association it necessarily involves, that as a garden was the scene of man's first disobedience, so did it witness his triumph over the grave.

"Here mankind fell, and hence they rose again."

Now, if many of the pursuits, even of leisure and elegance, in which men are engaged, are the result of discoveries traceable to no very remote period, and recommended to their attention by successive improvements, in which their own ingenuity may perhaps have had a share, with what devoted zeal and unceasing delight ought they to cherish that art whose foundations were laid coevally with creation itself! How ought they to love an occupation endeared and consecrated, as gardening is, by the most solemn and affecting associations!

Certain it is, as far as history informs us, that from the earliest ages it has been contemporary with national prosperity and popular refinement, and has always flourished together with other elegant arts, possessing this decided advantage over some of them, that, whilst they have obtained their acmé of improvement, and could advance no further, science is shedding on horticulture the rays of continued and progressive improvement, and encouraging its votaries with a boundless field of research, and daily results of interest and delight.

In speaking of the antiquity of the art, as attested by history, we need not go beyond the days of Semiramis, who lived farther in time before the Christian era than we do after

it. Amongst the embellishments of Babylon were the celebrated hanging gardens (*pensiles horti*.) constructed by her at immense expense, perhaps at the price of vanquished kingdoms, and certainly, as we are told, with the labor of an entire population. These were in the style of an amphitheatre, on terraces of successive elevation, accessible by flights of steps and supported by immense arches. On these terraces was a sufficient surface of soils for the roots of the largest trees, which flourished there in all the luxuriancy of their native forests, together with the richest variety of flowers and shrubs. The ancient Egyptians, who advanced the arts of civilized life to a degree of refinement which no one can venture to say has been surpassed or equaled in after times, bestowed great care upon their gardens, planning them upon a scale of great magnificence, and irrigating them with canals and reservoirs to ensure a continual luxuriance in their orchards and vineyards. Clarke, speaking of his passage up the Nile, says, "Upon each side of the river, as far as the eye could survey, were rich fields of corn and rice, with such beautiful groves, seeming to rise out of the watery plains, and to shade innumerable settlements in the Delta, amidst never-ending plantations of melons and all kinds of garden vegetables, that, from the abundance of its produce, Egypt may be deemed the richest country in the world." Their ancient taste for gardens still survives, for Cairo is said to embrace a prodigious number of them, and to be almost embosomed in trees. Hasselquist, a traveler of the last century, speaking of the roses of Egypt, and the water distilled from them, mentions an apothecary at Cairo, who annually purchases one hundred and eighty gallons of it. The poet Martial mentions a present of roses from the Pharian gardens to the Emperor, and those, too, of winter flowering roses.

"*Ut nova dona tibi Cæsar, Nilotica tellus,
Miserat hibernas ambitiosa rosas,*" &c.

The early Romans cultivated their gardens with no other object than to supply them with vegetables and herbs, which induced that expression of Pliny, "ex horto enim plebei macellum;" for to them it was an abundant market, always at hand. Virgil's description of the old Corycian's garden, in his fourth Georgic, although brief, shows that, even in his day, this important object was not neglected; for amongst the roses and lilies, the poppies, daffodils and myrtles—onions and cucumbers, parsley and other pot-herbs, were not neglected. But in Virgil's day, it was not only *arbores and olera*, but aromatic plants, flowers, and evergreens, the myrtle, the ivy, the laurel, and the box, that exhibited the prominent beauties of the garden.

We know that agriculture was always considered an honorable employment among the Romans. Many distinguished families took their names from the successful cultivation of particular grains, as Pliny informs us was the case with the Fabii, Lentuli and the Pisones, who were all distinguished husbandmen. The name of Cicero was derived from the vetch, or cicer, cultivated by one of his ancestors. So great was their love for gardening, that the Roman generals, on their return from foreign conquests, particularly in Asia, introduced and naturalized into their orchards and vinyards, many valuable fruits from the countries they had subdued, and of which they were the native product. Cherries were brought from the borders of the Euxine, and varieties of apples from Greece, Syria, and other parts. Pears were brought from Alexandria, and also from Syria—"Syriisve pyris;" peaches from Persia, apricots from Epirus and Armenia, plums from Damascus and Syria, pomegranates from Cyprus and Carthage, and olives and figs from Greece. And we further read, that many of these fruits were distinguished by the names either of those who had introduced or successfully cultivated them. The very Corycian of whom we have spoken, it is said, was brought by Pompey into Italy, from Corycus, a city of Cilicia which he had conquered. All these facts show that the Romans, even amidst the successful career of conquest and victory, did not neglect the "cura colendi," nor, indeed, anything that might promote the glory and happiness of their country. We cannot here forget the story of an orchard of ripe fruit, within the limits of a Romish camp, that was left untouched by the soldiers.

Pliny, in his chapter on gardens, speaking of the encroachments of wealth upon the rights of plebeian industry, in monopolising rare herbs and vegetables for its own luxurious enjoyments, complains of it as inconsistent with the impartial bounty of nature. Adverting to the change, both at Athens and Rome, in the ancient purposes of a garden, which were altogether those of utility, he remarks that it is no longer cultivated for the support of an industrious owner, but had become the ornament of cities, and under the name of *Hortus*, was converted, as he emphatically says, into "delicias, agros, villasque;" and it is well known that the gardens in and about Rome were adorned with the utmost magnificence.

Horace, in one of his Epistles, alludes to the custom of ornamenting their palaces with shady trees :

"Mempe inter varias nutritur silva columnas;"

and again,—

"— nemus
Inter pulchra situm tecta."

Tibullus, in one of his elegies, also alludes to it :

"Et nemore in domibus sacros imitantia lucos."

Hence, also, that beautiful expression of Martial, which has become so trite from repetition, "Rus in urbe." Indeed, the gardens of Rome have quite a classical character, and are identified with its history and its poetry. Those of Lucullus, Cæsar, and Sallust, will live unfading verdure.

The poet Martial beautifully describes the garden-like appearance of Rome to a stranger, on his first visit to it :

"Urbis ut intravit limina,

*Sic, quacumque vagus, gressumque oculosque forebat,
Textilibus sertis omne rubebat iter."*

This fondness of blending the beauty and luxuriancy of nature, with the uniformity and regularity of art, has prevailed in every city where climate and situation have favored it. Man longs, amidst the lines and angles, and the artifical ornaments of even a palace, to behold the unmeasured variety of nature. And it is to that particular taste or propensity, to which Horace so aptly and forcibly applies that well-known observation :

*"Naturam si expellas furca,
Tamen usque recurret."*

How pround the distinction, even amongst comparative barbarians, is that attributed to one of the cities of India, "the city of one hundred thousand gardens"—the city of the rose and the nightingale !

A recent English periodical styles the residences of some of the great nobility in London, city parks ; and mentions that even a part of one of their gardens would let for sixteen or eighteen thousand pounds a year.

The royal gardens of Aranjuez, in Spain, if they still retain their former grandeur, must be the most delightful in the world. Situated on the banks of the Tagus, with every advantage of natural beauty, they were originally laid out with much of the formality of art ; but nature, asserting her sway, has been allowed to intrude and break in upon that formality, advancing on the walks in some places, and receding in others, thus blending her luxuriancy with the regularity of art, and producing an effect altogether magical.

Thus, we see that wealth and luxury have always claimed a garden as the favorite object of prodigal expense. But instead of imitating the simplicity of nature, they have too often disfigured her with the motley inventions of art, and loaded her with ornaments which she abhors ; and which, "without speech or language," she is constantly reproving, even in the humblest of her productions. It is not in straight walks, clip-

ped hedges, cones, and labyrinths, or such caprices, that wealth may successfully employ itself in gardening; but in collecting and naturalizing the kindred productions of various countries and climates, and bringing together, as it were, into one family circle, the scattered members of the same species—in beholding their blended hues, and inhaling their mingled fragrance. In this respect, modern horticulture has a decided advantage over that of antiquity. No one can be a skillful horticulturist, that is unacquainted with botany and other kindred sciences, all of which were unknown to the ancients. Their efforts were practical and experimental; those of the moderns are founded on principle, and directed by a knowledge of the properties and affinities of plants. The modern horticulturist does not merely regard the ornamental part of gardening, which is very much a matter of taste and observation—but without neglecting that, he has higher objects. He calls botany and chemistry to his aid. By means of the former he is able to ascertain the particular family to which every plant belongs, to know its peculiar properties and the purposes for which nature has designed it—whether for ornament or use—whether esculent or otherwise—whether nutritious or poisonous. The latter, by its practical developments, informs him of the best means of manuring his grounds and increasing their productiveness; of experimenting on his soil and finding out its peculiar nature, and employing it for that cultivation for which it is best adapted; what soils furnish the best aliment for particular plants, and the constitution of those plants, as determined by the nature of their roots, which are various—some being fibrous, others bulbous or tube-rose, others hard and woody. Professor Liebig, in his work on the application of organic chemistry to agriculture, has done much to elevate the character of horticulture; for all that relates to the nutrition of vegetables, and the action of manure upon them, is equally important to both.

In addition to these, entomology may be enlisted to give effect to his labors. It will acquaint him with the nature of those insects which are so great an enemy to the garden—from the grub and cut-worm that destroy in the dark, to those that are winged, and attack the tallest trees—and direct his attention to the best means of destroying them, or of lessening their depredations. On this subject, there is yet a wide range of observation and experiment to stimulate the exertions of the horticulturist. The ravages of insects have at all times been the subject of complaint with gardeners; and all who have either labored or written have united their regrets. Whilst we are improving our gardens by the importation of foreign plants and shrubs, and habituating them to our cli-

mate and cultivation, we run the risk of introducing destructive insects, hitherto unknown. Some of the most fatal of these insects are exotics: one, peculiar to the pear tree, is said to be of foreign importation, as it was never observed in the United States until the introduction of fruit trees became common. And we all remember with mournful experience, the blighting effects of that little white insect, so fatal to our orange trees, which a few years ago visited our gardens, carrying with them a desolation as deadly as that which follows the march of the locust.

Sir William Temple, in his essay on gardening, speaks of a disease known amongst orange trees, which he pronounces a most pestilent one. He describes it as proceeding from an insect which fastens on the bark of the tree, dark brown and figured like a shield. He quotes Pausanias as saying that they were much noticed in Greece. He is of opinion that they proceed from the roots; but those to which we allude, cover and encrust the tree so entirely, not excepting even the smallest twigs or shoots, as to induce the belief that they are not generated in the root, but are winged. The excessive cold of the winter of 1837, which hastened, or rather completed, the destruction of our orange trees, still leaves us in doubt whether this disease was a transient or permanent one. We have not heard of their re-appearance.

What are the results of the scientific character which horticulture has of late years acquired (and here let me observe that the very term, "horticulture" has grown into use from the more literal character it has assumed in modern times)? "Gardening" has been the only word always used by the best English writers, Swift, Addison, Cowley in his beautiful poem addressed to Mr. Evelyn, Sir William Temple, Horace Walpole, and Cowper. For, in their day, it was altogether an art, practical, and based on experience, directed by taste, rather than science, and considered the appendage of wealth, and used for the ornament of villas and palaces.

But a garden has now become a field of scientific research, displaying a knowledge of botany, chemistry, and vegetable physiology, without any restraint or limitation on the exercise of taste. Those sciences entering into, and directing its employments, have elevated both its character and its name. They seem to have established a higher class, that requires a distinguishing name; whilst the mere plodding gardener is left to his humble, though useful occupation, of supplying our tables with the best fruit, and vegetables, and herbs, adding the experience of one year to the labors of another. The horticulturist is employed in the more liberal and enlarged sphere of the pursuit, aiming at higher objects—to soften the

asperities of climate—to subdue the stubbornness of soils—to obliterate the line between barrenness and fertility—in a word, to bring the whole vegetable kingdom under subjection to the uniform government of science. He knows that in the ordinary course of nature, everything proceeds from established and regular principles—that there are no phenomena that may not be accounted for—no secret processes that may not be discovered—and no operations which may not be satisfactorily explained.

But to return. One of the results, we might say one of the triumphs, of modern horticulture, is the introduction and naturalization, even the domestication, of foreign plants and flowers, greatly diversifying the beauty of our gardens, and enlarging the enjoyments of taste. Our vegetable population is thus greatly increased, and, like that of our municipal and political communities, is fast rivaling the number of natives. The extension of commerce, and the growing civilization of the world, have very much contributed to this. We may all remember when our gardens produced a comparative meagre display—when our roses were few, and those the descendants of the Huguenot* stock, and our flower-beds confined to anemones and stock gillyflowers, pinks, jonquils, and a few blue hyacinths, (other colors being very rarely seen,) as prescribed by the old-fashioned vocabulary. Whereas they now exhibit a splendid array of flowers and shrubs, contributed by every part of the globe—roses from China and Bengal; dahlias from Mexico; jessamines from Arabia; verbenas and astremerias from South America; the gardenia florida, ixia sparaxis, and goladiolus from the Cape of Good Hope; mignonne from Egypt; the ice-plant (*mysembryanthemum crystallinum*) from Athens; the various japonicas, including the lornicera, the Italian honeysuckle; the lagerstremia from China, with its varieties, and that splendid shrub the pittosporum, also from China. These, with many other exotics, are now familiar to us, and may be fairly enrolled in the American Flora.

But all is not yet accomplished. New fields are to be explored and their beauties culled. It is said that there are dispersed on the surface of the globe forty thousand distinct species of plants bearing flowers, and this is thought but a moderate estimate. Of these there are thirteen thousand flowering plants in the intertropical parts of America, whilst Europe, which lies wholly within the temperate zone, contains seven thousand. It is to be hoped that the recent polit-

* Several beautiful roses are found in those parts of the country where the Huguenots settled, "to tell where a garden had been."

ical changes which have taken place in China, enlarging its trade with other nations, and particularly with the United States, will give us still further insight into its botanical treasures, and add to what we already possess of them.

Amongst the foreign contributions by which our gardens have been enriched, is the rose, with its splendid varieties. But this paragon of flowers claims at least the tribute of a separate paragraph. It is asserted by naturalists, that all the diversities of form, color, size, and fragrance, which now distinguish the rose, have proceeded from care and cultivation, there being but one native original. If this be true, what elements of beauty must there have been in that original, to develop themselves so luxuriantly and profusely! How like its prototype of Eden, in whom all that was "lovely—fair" was summed up, "in her contained." Transplanted from the wilderness, where its sweetness was wasted, it has become the pride and ornament of man's habitation; it has spread its progeny over every clime, and is the inseparable companion of civilization and refinement. The harbinger of spring, and emblem of youth—

"Celestial rosy-red—love's proper hue;"

it has received the homage of the poet in every age. The offerings of taste and genius, of beauty and innocence, have diffused an atmosphere of joy around it, and made it the object of universal but harmless idolatry. Pliny places the rose at the head of flowers, investing it, as it were, with royal precedence. "Lilium rose nobilitate proximum est." He mentions many varieties in the gardens of Rome, the names of which show that several had been introduced from abroad. Some of these varieties are beautifully alluded to by the poet Martial, in one of his epigrams addressed to a chaplet of roses :

"Seu tu Paestinis genita es, seu Tiburis arvis:
Seu rubuit tellus Tuscula flore tuo;
Seu Praenestino te villies legit in horto;
Seu modo Campani gloria ruris eras," &c.

No doubt the celebrated rose of Paestum, which always had the word "bifera" prefixed to it, is to be found among the varieties that adorn our own gardens, many of them having that peculiarity. Indeed our gardens, which were formerly sterile in this branch of cultivation, now exhibit the fruits of a most liberal taste. Of the white rose there were but two varieties, the common white and the musk; of the red, the centifolia or common May rose, the damask, the cabbage rose, and a few other varieties, were the only ornaments of the rosarium: whereas now the enterprise of the American horticulturist has overspread our country with one blush of

beauty, almost realizing the visionary hope before expressed.

That an enlightened interest is awakened throughout the United States on the subject of horticulture, is not only evident from the facts above stated, but from the active efforts of societies established for its encouragement. By these, information is sought, experiments encouraged, improvements rewarded, papers illustrating its various scientific relations and practical developments read and published, and an intercommunication made on the result of individual effort; thus elevating the pursuit, imparting to it a more liberal character, and multiplying and enhancing the conscious enjoyments of him that practises it. And where is there a happier man than the horticulturist? Nature is his constant companion. His daily study is to improve his acquaintance with her, and to cultivate that intercourse whose delights are exhaustless. The alternate succession of expectation and reality, of labor and repose, of retirement and society, fill up the day and the year. He labors to brighten every hue in the mantle of beauty which she has spread over the fields, and to make her bounties even more worthy of gratitude. In investigating the phenomena of vegetable life, and exhibiting in his labors and improvements those results which minister to the enjoyments of taste, and to the more substantial comforts of man, he entitles himself, without any ambition for the distinction, to be called a benefactor of his race. Nor are his pursuits without moral benefit to himself. Decay and reproduction are constantly before him as emblematic monitors. He is the steward of mysteries which no human science can unfold, and which, in the humblest flower of the valley, are daily declaring the unfathomable wisdom of the great Author of creation. The seeds that decay and germinate, have undergone the same alternate process as when they fell from the hand of him who planted the first garden. Hence he learns that it is the right and the privilege of the virtuous man who has been employed through life in cultivating its charities, to enjoy, in their richest display, the fruits of his labors, and to know that the seed that he reaps is to spring up and flourish after him.

ART. VI.—CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN EUROPE.

UNDER an appropriation from Congress it is known that John Claiborne, Esq., of Louisiana, recently visited Europe, and prepared a report upon its consumption of cotton, which has been printed. The report is now on the table before us, being a pamphlet of about one hundred pages, including a

lengthy and valuable paper on the consumption of cotton in the Zollverein, furnished to the Department of the Interior by Dr. Schleidin, minister from Bremen.

It is needless to say that this report is meagre, when we consider that Mr. Claiborne spent but three or four months in Europe; but so far as it goes we have found it well considered, accurate, and of great value, and have no doubt that it will lead to more elaborate publications in the future.

The points to which Mr. Claiborne's attention was called by his instructions from the Department, were to—

1. Ascertain the amount of cotton consumed in the manufactories of each city, district, or country, either in Europe, or any other portion of the earth where cotton is manufactured; the amount of capital invested in such manufacturing establishments; the number of looms and spindles; the number of hands employed, and the average rate of wages paid to the employés. Aggregate results for each country or district are desirable, as far as practicable.
2. The immediate sources from whence these establishments actually procure their raw material; the nearest seaport where they might be furnished direct from the United States, and the diminution of cost which might be effected by any change in the course of trade.
3. If direct trade were established, what are the commodities we should receive in exchange. Would this be sufficient in amount to furnish adequate return freights for the vessels employed in the transportation of cotton.
4. What proportion of the supplies furnished to these establishments is in the shape of yarn, and what in the shape of raw cotton. Ascertain the price of each, in order to show what profit is made by the manufacturer of the yarn.
5. What is the quality, grade, or number of the yarn principally used, and is it such as could be produced by the unskilled labor on plantations, or in the Southern cities.
6. To what countries do the manufacturers of Europe generally send their yarns and goods, and what diminution of expense would result from manufacturing or spinning in our own country, and shipping direct to those countries.
7. What duties are levied on cotton or yarn respectively; their effect on the consumption of each; the feasibility of procuring their remission or modification, and the probable effect on consumption of such remission.
8. What are the agencies in each country which are now tending either to advance or check the consumption of cotton.
9. What new modes of applying cotton to the use of man are now in use in Europe; to what extent is it used for mixing with wool in making cloths, cordage, or for any other purpose.
10. What proportion of the cotton goods consumed in each country is imported, and what supplied at home.
11. Examine the subject in its financial aspect; inquire how, in the actual operations of commerce, a merchant could have his orders for cotton executed, and pay therefor at the ports of exportation. Examine also into the nature and course of exchange operations that would thus arise, and the practicability of avoiding the necessity of English or French banking credits.
12. Direct some attention to the subject of the production of cotton in foreign countries, with a view of ascertaining whether our planters may apprehend any formidable competition from any such source; what are the obstacles in the way of such foreign production, and are they such as are likely to be removed hereafter.

FRANCE.—This nation ranks second to Great Britain in respect to cotton manufactures, and second to no country in the taste and beauty of her tissues. It is but sixty years since this industry was attempted in Paris. The French yarns are

esteemed to be ten per cent. better than those of England. The pure cotton tissues, of French manufacture, are calicoes, indiennes, percales, ginghams, madopolain, jaconet, organdie, and fig'd muslins, printed muslins, handkerchiefs, and shawls, tulles, bobinets, laces, bonnetine, and fringes and nankins.

M. Moreau de Jonnès, in his late very valuable work, "*La Statisque de L'Industrie de la France*," (Statistics of French Industry,) has a chapter on cotton which abounds in interesting facts and speculations. After giving a rapid sketch of the rise and progress of the manufacture in France, the author proceeds to show its influence upon the industrial and commercial wealth of the country, as it at present exists. According to this high authority, the value of the production of cotton tissues, and its relation to the population, was, in the year 1812, 176,000,000 of francs, or \$32,736,000, being 6 francs, or \$1 12 to each inhabitant; while in 1850 it was 334,000,000 of francs, or \$62,124,000, being 10 francs to each inhabitant. By the census of 1851, the population of France was 35,783,170. Says M. de Jonnès, p. 76, "The 62,000,000 (kilogrammes) imported for the spinneries, being transformed into tissues and other fabrics, worth at least 334,000,000 of francs, the industry of our manufactures quintuples the value of the raw material, and augments it four times; or, in other words, gives it an increased value of 250,000,000 of francs." Estimating the total consumption by Great Britain, Continental Europe, and the United States, at the time he was writing, (probably 1855,) at the round sum of 502,000,000 kilogrammes, or 1,104,400,000 pounds, he says: "At 1 fr. 50 centimes (the kilogramme) here is a value of 753,000,000 (or \$140,058,000.) If the raw material should be everywhere quintupled, as in France, the annual industrial production of cotton would be near 4,000,000."

M. de Jonnès gives tabular statements as to each branch of cotton manufacture in France, which are embodied herein as well worthy of attention. For convenience sake, the French weights and values have been reduced to our own standards. His estimate of the number of spindles is considerably below that of several other authorities—M. Andiganne placing the number at 5,000,000.

COTTON SPINNING.

Number of mills.....	566
Communes in which they are found.....	275
Their consumption of raw material, (lbs.).....	138,226,000
Value of the same.....	\$17,519,756
Quantity of cotton spun, waste not included, (lbs.).....	127,600,000
Total value of the yarn spun.....	\$27,379,200
Number of hands employed.....	63,064
(of whom, 22,807 men, at 37 cents; 23,531 women, at 19 cents; and 16,726 children, at 10 cents per day.)	

Raw material per centum.....	.65
Salaries, general expenses, and profits, do.....	.35

NOTE.—The rate of wages given here is at least one-third. Mr. Claiborne says, below those which, I was informed by proprietors, were paid at Mulhouse and Rouen. They had probably risen meanwhile.

THE following statistics will show the receipts of cotton into France, from all countries, and the markets which are furnished for her manufactured tissues:

EXPORTS OF COTTON TISSUES FROM FRANCE OF HOME PRODUCTION.

Countries.	1844.	1854.	1856.
Algeria.....	\$4,445,400	\$10,323,200	\$12,424,800
Other French colonies.....	3,124,800	3,868,800	3,999,000
Spain.....	4,891,800	2,808,600	3,608,400
United States.....	1,078,800	1,246,200	1,897,200
England.....	384,800	1,848,400	1,729,800
Sardinian States.....	1,102,000	1,120,600	1,692,600
Switzerland.....	985,800	1,060,200	1,618,200
Belgium.....	632,400	1,320,600	1,432,200
The Zollverein.....	520,800	911,400	1,116,000
Brazil.....	213,200	837,000	892,800
Turkey and Greece.....	98,000	279,000	669,600
Mexico.....	539,400	390,600	539,400
Naples and Sicily.....	74,400	239,000	446,400
Hayti.....	651,000	427,800	358,400
Tuscan and Papal States.....	409,200	167,400	297,600
Chili.....	55,800	204,600	297,600
Foreign West Indies.....	167,400	372,000	279,000
Buenos Ayres and Uruguay.....	18,600	372,000	279,000
Columbia*.....	37,200	148,800	213,200
Africa.....	111,600	148,800	167,400
Peru.....	18,600	180,600	130,200
Other countries.....	465,000	141,800	576,600
Total.....	\$20,181,000	+\$28,755,600	+\$34,670,400

* Including New Granada, Ecuador, and Venezuela.

† The real value was \$11,184,924.

‡ The real value was \$13,410,600.

IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO FRANCE AND DUTIES PAID.

Whence imported.	1827-1836. Pounds.	1837-1846. Pounds.	1856. Pounds.
United States.....	59,785,000	108,708,600	173,137,800
Venezuela.....		255,200	165,000
Brazil.....	3,245,000	1,368,400	506,000
Peru.....	15,400	363,000	651,200
Hayti.....	213,400	180,400	123,200
Guadalupe.....	114,400	147,400	85,800
Algeria.....			48,400
English East Indies.....	499,400	770,000	693,000
Turkey.....	2,604,800	3,458,400	547,800
Egypt.....	5,827,800	3,555,200	6,778,200
INDIRECTLY IMPORTED.			
England.....	72,200	37,400	2,222,000
Belgium.....	50,600	48,400	101,200
Other countries.....	1,190,200	1,148,400	248,600
Total.....	78,625,200	120,040,800	183,488,200
Value in dollars, (official).....	10,969,164	17,971,878	27,829,320
Duties paid in dollars.....	1,345,324	2,178,060	3,712,286

From his review Mr. Claiborne arrives at the conclusion, "that the condition of cotton manufacture in France is highly prosperous and remunerative, and there is no reason why the consumption of cotton should not go on increasing. The comparative dearness of fuel for manufacturing purposes is more than counterbalanced by the abundance and cheapness of labor, and the monopoly of the home market, with a demand for cotton tissues and stuffs for clothing or luxury, which is daily augmenting. Nevertheless, the cotton manufacturing interest is at present in a nervous and excited state, owing to the exertions of the advocates of greater freedom of trade, and the abolition or radical modification of the prohibitory system. That a modification—the greater the better—of our commercial treaty with France, would be followed by an increased consumption of our cotton, wool, and other products, and would tend to the increased prosperity of both countries, does not admit of reasonable doubt."

SWITZERLAND.—At Zurich a leading merchant and cotton buyer informed Mr. Claiborne that at least nine-tenths of the consumption of cotton wool in Switzerland was of the growth of the United States; there being but a small proportion of Egyptian, and still less of Brazilian or East Indian, called for. The Swiss manufacturers, with whom capital is generally abundant, have availed themselves of all the latest inventions and improvements in machinery, both for spinning and weaving; and their establishments are, for the most part, models as to neatness, order, and skill.

As for the future prospects of cotton manufacture in Switzerland, it may be said that though it is an inland country, without seaports or coal beds, and therefore obliged to pay an increased price for the raw material, as well as for the necessary fuel to convert it into yarns or tissues, there is, nevertheless, to be found abundance of capital and cheap labor, whereby those disadvantages are overcome to a considerable degree. The general diffusion of skill in handwork, aided by the system of popular education, the frugal habits of the people, and the winters of eight months' duration, compelling the inhabitants to remain within doors, all contribute to make up for the disadvantages under which it otherwise labors; the influence of new inventions in machinery, and methods of saving fuel, must also be felt there as they have been elsewhere; while the more liberal modern systems which dispense raw materials and manufactures from it, *in transitu*, from the payment of duties to the countries through which they pass, place Switzerland more on a footing with maritime countries than might otherwise be the case. A still further increase in

her importation and manufacture of cotton-wool seems therefore altogether probable.

BELGIUM.—In Belgium, from 26,000 to 28,000 people are engaged in the manufacture of cotton.

"Traverse the country in whatever direction he may, the traveler scarcely ever loses sight of the tall chimneys of the factories, and he is frequently at a loss whether to admire most of its evidences of high agricultural advancement or those of manufacturing activity which meet him at every turn."

In 1855, the importation of cotton into Belgium amounted to 26,809,760 lbs., of which 12,530,126 lbs. were direct from the United States. Of this, 3,926,921 lbs. were *in transitu*.

"The entire importation of cotton yarn in 1855 amounted to 3,656,948 lbs. of the value of 1,273,002 dollars. Of this, 428,391 lbs., of the value of 292,448 dollars, were consumed in the country, and 3,316,851 lbs., of the value of 1,015,268 dollars, was in transit. Much the greater part of these yarns were sent into Prussia."

Statement of Cotton Wool imported into Belgium during the years specified.

Whence imported.	1850. Pounds.	1851. Pounds.	1855. Pounds.
England.....	7,303,861	9,270,408	11,130,678
Netherlands.....	127,774	52,666	1,294,075
France.....	110,279	234,464	1,536,603
Sardinia.....	55,143
English East Indies.....	170,720
United States.....	14,398,329	11,791,434	12,530,126
Hayti and Venezuela....	40,148	26,200	53,350
Other countries.....	22,842	39,065
Total, pounds.....	22,003,228	21,875,172	26,809,760

THE HANSE TOWNS.—Although none of it is consumed in their territories, the two free cities of Bremen and Hamburg receive annually a large and rapidly increasing amount of cotton, which is distributed thence into the States composing the German Custom's Union, Switzerland, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. All classifications are quite ready of sale, but middling to middling fair are the most sought for. In fact, Bremen and Hamburg import more American cotton than any other country, except Great Britain, France and Spain.

In 1856, 45,539,585 lbs. cotton were imported to Bremen, valued at \$5,432,615; of this 42,757,210 lbs., valued at \$5,173,343f were the productions of the United States. The United States, therefore, furnished almost the entire supply, and

received in return cloth, (woolen,) cotton goods, hosiery, silks, segars, toys, glass, looking-glass plates, willow baskets, musical instruments, pianos, zeni wool, and manufactures of porcelain. Nearly all these articles pay a pretty high duty, which curtails their consumption in the United States, and diminishes the consuming power of the lower classes, who produce these articles. A reduction of the duty on such articles would materially increase the export trade to the United States, and the consumption of cotton, tobacco, rice, and other articles produced by the United States, in Germany.

In 1855, 47,083,451 lbs. raw cotton, valued at \$4,447,145 were imported at Hamburg, besides 54,753,907 lbs. yarns and threads, valued at \$10,319,393. Much the greater portion thereof was American cotton, chiefly imported from Liverpool. The value of direct trade is, however, much more appreciated by the Hamburgers at this time than has hitherto been the case, and with the example and immense commercial progress of Bremen in that respect before them, as an illustration of the great advantages likely to flow from it, if properly fostered, they are turning their eyes beyond the marts of London and Liverpool to those of New York and New Orleans, anxious to secure, if practicable, for themselves the only profits on that portion of our products which is consumed in the interior States of Germany; and at the same time to endeavor, by the establishment of a steady, cheap, and well-supplied market, to command, to a greater degree than at present, the supply of our raw materials to northern Europe.

SARDINIA.—In 1855, 19,020,661 lbs. cotton were imported into Sardinia, of which 11,621,797 lbs. came direct from the United States, while there can be no doubt that by far the greater portion of that reported as coming from France, England, Belgium, &c., was also the growth of this country. Of this 9,096,021 lbs. were re-exported. If the estimate of 40 pounds consumption of the raw material per year, to each spindle be applied to Sardinia, the result would be 260,000 lbs. which is probably near the truth.

It is anticipated by the merchants of Genoa that the importations of cotton into that port, direct from the United States, or other countries of its growth, will continue to increase, not only to meet a domestic demand, but also to supply, by means of the Sardinian railroad, the wants of the spinners in the Italian provinces of Austria, and those of Tyrol and the Voralberg. There are few or no direct exchange operations between Sardinia and the cotton marts of the United States. Payments are made by drafts on London or Paris. The chief

articles of exports are fruits, olive oil, silk, rice, wool, wine, grain, &c.

THE ZOLLVEREIN.—There were in 1857, 196 cotton manufactories in the German Zollverein, consuming 121,050 bales of American cotton, against 64,900 bales from all other sources. From reliable data these numbers will be increased the present year to 208 manufactories, consuming 158,650 bales of American cotton, and 77,300 bales of others. In 1853, 91,126,119 lbs cotton were imported into the Zollverein, and 52,517,991 lbs. yarns and threads, Prussia receiving about seven-ninths of this quantity.

In the year 1856, there were, according to Mr. George Von Veibahn, chief of division of the financial department of the ministry of commerce, &c., at Berlin, in the kingdom of Prussia, 88 spinneries, with an aggregate of 288,907 spindles, which, at an estimate of forty pounds each of the raw material per annum, required 11,556,280 lbs.

"In 1857, the number of mills in the kingdom of Saxony, according to a statement of Dr. Christian A. Weining, chief of divisions, etc., in the ministry of finance, was 135, running 600,000 spindles. The consumption of raw cotton was about 30,000,000 pounds, of which 12,950,595 pounds were the growth of the United States, almost all of which was reported *via* Bremen; and 11,432,463 pounds of the growth of the East Indies, imported *via* Hamburg.

"To the United States the exports consisted principally of hosiery, valued at two millions of thalers; woolen cloths, valued at one and a half million of thalers; and other woolen goods, valued at half a million thalers."

Statement of the Import, Export, and Transit of Cotton Wool into and from each of the States of the Zollverein during the year 1853; the weights reduced to the standard of the United States.

States.	Import—lbs.	Export—lbs.	Transit—lbs.
Prussia, with Luxemburg	9,494
Bavaria.....	71,274,407
Saxony.....	902,075	527,919
Wurtemburg.....	15,239,739	14,084,221	5,969,250
Baden.....	27,025	171,966	3,202,254
Electoral Hesse.....	3,086,224	186,091	8,226,657
Duchy of Hesse.....	43,681
Thuringia.....
Brunswick.....	15,333
Nassau.....	525,493	9,165
Frankfort-on-the-Main.....
Add import by the post..	2,648
Total	91,126,119	20,943,323	19,660,894

There will be, therefore, in working order next year:

	Cotton factories.	Spindles.	To consume bales of American.	Bales of East India Cotton.	Total, pounds.
In Bavaria.....	18	548,700	50,050	10,200	60,250
In Saxony.....	134	604,648	36,700	36,000	73,700
In Prussia.....	26	424,000	23,000	13,000	46,000
In Baden.....	11	210,600	20,100	6,200	26,300
In Wurtemburg.....	12	134,000	13,600	3,700	17,300
In Hanover.....	2	55,800	3,000	4,000	7,000
In Oldenburg.....	5	40,400	2,200	4,200	6,400
Total in Zollverein..	208	2,018,146	158,650	77,300	235,950

In 1856 the number of spindles actually in operation within the German Zollverein was only 1,200,000, and the amount of cotton consumed 160,000 bales.

AUSTRIA.—In 1856, according to an official report, 84,774,371 lbs. cotton were imported into Austria. In 1854, 189 establishments for cotton manufacturing were in operation in Austria, consuming (estimated) 145,000 bales.

"The importation of raw cotton into Lombardy is estimated at 30,000 bales, of which 25,000 are of the growth of the United States, and 5,000 of the Indies and the Levant. The much greater part of the cotton from the United States, Malta, and the Indies, is received through the port of Genoa, and nearly all the cottons from the Levant are imported by way of Trieste, where formerly a much more considerable importation was counted, but the low prices of cotton in America during the years 1840, 1844, 1848, 1849, and 1850, have broken up the culture of cotton in the countries of the Levant. Many of the largest spinners import cotton direct from the United States, and are able to furnish a good supply to the smaller spinners."

RUSSIA.—In 1847, there were in Russia 55 cotton spinneries, employing about 60,000 people. The other branches of cotton manufacture employ four times that number.

"The value of cotton tissues of all descriptions, fabricated in Russia, is estimated at 65,000,000 silver roubles. Nearly all of it is consumed within the country. Russia exports cotton stuffs only to Asia; their value not exceeding 2,500,000 silver roubles.

"In the year 1853, Russia imported from England raw cotton to the value of \$997,025; cotton manufactures to the value of \$328,575. Raw cotton, nine-tenths of which was of the growth of the United States, constituted 28.6 per cent. of all that England sent to Russia. In the same year Russia received from the United States raw cotton to the value of \$1,487,700 (being sixty-eight-hundredths of total import,) of the value of

\$2,187,350. In return she sent us a total value of \$1,672,875, consisting of sailcloth and coarse linen, linen and hempen yarn, iron, cordage, hemp, bristles, feathers, etc.

The direct trade in raw cotton between the United States and Russia is, however, on the increase, she having received directly from our ports, in 1856, an amount of 124,000 bales.

The policy of purchasing in the Liverpool market, instead of at New Orleans, Mobile, or Charleston, was explained to be on account of the more reliable classification or sorting at Liverpool than in the United States. To purchase raw cotton, without an intermediary at New Orleans, or any other American port, it would be necessary for the Russian manufacturer to send thither an agent, with specie, or drafts bought in Europe. In the actual condition of things, it is much more convenient for him to buy his cotton from English merchants at London or Liverpool, who grant credits more or less extended, at five per cent. per annum; besides which, in England, and particularly at Liverpool, where cotton is sold, after having been sorted and under guaranty, while in America, cotton is put upon the market without being sorted and without guaranty.

It is to be observed that the prices of cotton acquire commercial stability only in the English market; consequently, a Russian speculator, who should go to buy raw cotton in America, even at the period of the crop being gathered, which is the most advantageous for the purchasers, would run the risk of paying for it more than the current price two or three months later. All these causes combined, induce the Russian spinner to prefer the English market to the direct purchase of the cotton in America.

The Russian practice of buying in the Liverpool market is, in no small degree, caused by the fact that the managers of the mills, who are all English, are unwilling to receive stocks purchased elsewhere, believing that in England alone the proper classification for the descriptions of yarn in demand in the Russian market are to be had, and their influence prevails over other considerations with the owners."

Table 1.—TOTAL QUANTITY AND VALUE OF COTTON EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO ALL COUNTRIES.

	Sea Island.	All sorts.	Estimated value.	Price.
1822 to 1825....lbs	53,922,380	762,111,340	\$123,432,112	16.19
1826 to 1830.....	53,382,541	1,272,732,281	138,122,182	10.46
1831 to 1835.....	44,086,794	1,695,970,409	207,614,983	12.24
1836 to 1840.....	35,004,803	2,621,469,414	321,191,121	12.26
1841 to 1845.....	36,495,303	3,443,757,674	256,846,755	7.05
1846 to 1850.....	43,612,376	3,551,036,817	296,568,066	8.35
1851 to 1855.....	54,687,909	5,128,235,805	491,169,517	9.58
Totals for 35 years..	321,142,116	18,475,204,240	\$1,829,939,736	...
Annual averages....	9,175,489	527,862,978	\$52,283,992	9.90

Table 2.—TOTAL IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND FROM ALL COUNTRIES.

	From the U. States.	From the East Indies.	From the W. Indies.	From the Brazil.	From all ot'r countr's.	Total imports.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1821 to 1825.....	569,130,984	64,646,326	28,982,141	125,785,676	45,667,041	844,162,164
1826 to 1830.....	867,608,058	111,448,193	25,880,412	121,700,991	37,913,215	1,164,545,815
1831 to 1835.....	1,230,256,026	163,085,813	16,636,089	124,546,947	36,214,773	1,569,742,606
1836 to 1840.....	1,841,159,598	291,884,429	6,958,716	104,657,072	59,326,171	2,303,980,986
1841 to 1845.....	2,490,879,279	408,147,693	6,488,885	91,811,678	68,692,263	3,061,026,814
1846 to 1850.....	2,494,458,384	892,280,975	8,809,447	115,722,736	68,856,491	3,074,029,923
1851 to 1855.....	8,424,502,073	654,412,798	2,878,915	114,817,428	165,915,589	4,861,026,047
Totals for 35 years	12,917,989,369	2,085,911,178	95,076,855	793,542,526	482,092,438	16,379,614,329
Annual average...	360,085,411	59,597,462	2,716,589	22,815,501	13,774,070	467,988,981

Table 3.—EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	Cotton yarn exported.	Value of cotton goods exported.
	Value.	Value.
1821 to 1825.....	lba. 141,747,937	£18,971,492 £72,565,552
1826 to 1830.....	268,650,779	18,742,936 67,199,504
1831 to 1835.....	369,807,417	24,319,406 71,464,481
1836 to 1840.....	530,899,451	34,467,678 84,127,222
1841 to 1845.....	674,699,531	36,184,222 84,366,254
1846 to 1850.....	698,867,302	32,855,652 93,791,134
1851 to 1855.....	749,611,755	34,106,002 125,181,296
Grand totals for the whole pe- riod of 35 years.....	3,428,784,172	£194,647,478 £598,645,418
Annual averages for the whole period of 35 years.....	97,965,262	£5,561,357 £17,104,156

The conclusions to which Mr. Claiborne arrives at the close of his review of the cotton manufacturing system of Europe, are the following :

1st. That cotton contributes vastly to their social well-being by furnishing labor, sustenance, and cheap and comfortable clothing to many thousands of their subjects or citizens.

2d. That to commerce it contributes immensely by furnishing a great variety of articles, by which its exchanges are in a considerable degree regulated, and large profits continually realized. That to capital it offers the means of profitable investment and returns, and aids greatly in its accumulation.

3d. That its political influence arises from the fact, that by opening and extending commercial relations between different nations, it has created sympathies and ties of common interest, which makes the policy of peace and its attendant blessings one far more easy to maintain than was once the case ; that it adds to the national wealth and resources, and by furnishing employment and support to many thousands who might otherwise be without either, it makes contented those who would, through idleness or suffering, become burdens to the state.

4th. That the permanent and adequate supply of raw cotton thus becomes to Great Britain and Continental Europe, a subject of vital importance, and indeed, of absolute necessity ;

and that any considerable diminution in the crop of the United States, would cause the gravest inconveniences, while the occurrence of any state of things, whereby it should be entirely cut off, would be followed by social, commercial, and political convulsions, the effects of which can scarcely be imagined.

ART. VII.—THE MIND THAT HAS RULED AND DIRECTED THE UNION.

ONE of the Republican members of Congress the other day, whose name need not be mentioned, paid a tribute to the governing capacities of the South which may encourage her people should they ever think of setting up altogether for themselves. The only ridiculous part of the remarks, is, that which refers to the non-slave-holders of the South, who are thought to be arrayed against their own hearths and homes.

"The population of the free States is over thirteen millions; of the slave States, over six millions. There have been eighteen presidential elections; twelve Presidents were slave-holders, six were not, but Northern men with Southern sentiments. The slaveholders have held the Presidency for forty-eight years—more than two-thirds of the entire period. No Northern man has ever been reelected; five of the slave-owners have been. As far as the Presidency is concerned, the slave-owners have had more than their *equal rights!* There are over twenty millions of free people in the Union; the slave-owners numbered, in 1850, three hundred and forty-six thousand and forty-seven. According to numbers, they should have had the Presidency but a single year; they have had it over forty-eight!"

"Since 1809, the President *pro tempore* of the Senate has been a slaveholder, except Mr. Southard, of New Jersey, and Mr. Bright, of Indiana, for five or six years in all! And they were zealous adherents of the slave power! A single year was all they could claim upon the principle of *equal rights!*"

"Since 1820, for thirty-eight years closing with the present Congress, *slave-owners* have been *Speakers* of the House for thirty years; and free-State men for only eight years! The Speaker, by the appointment of committees, controls the legislation of the country more than any other officer of the Government, and the committees never were appointed in so unfair and partisan a manner as in the present Congress!"

"In the thirty-five Congresses, we have had twenty-two Speakers who were slave-owners, and twelve who were free-State men. What class of men have had more than their *equal rights?*"

"Since 1841, *slave-owners* have held the office of Secretary of the Navy, except two years, up to the organization of the

present Cabinet; and since 1849, a *slave-owner* has always been Secretary of War. The free States furnish most of the shipping and seamen for the navy, and most of the soldiers for the army; but slave-owners command them. Who have had more, in this, than their *equal rights*?

"Since 1789, up to the present Administration, the Secretary of State has been appointed fourteen times from slave-owners, and only eight times from free-State men. This is the first officer of the Cabinet, who has charge of the foreign relations of the country. What men have had more than their *equal rights*?

"In the Supreme Court, five of the nine judges, including the Chief Justice, have always been *slave-owners*, and only four from the free States, and these must be sturdy adherents of the slave power. So that one department of the Government has been forever exclusively in the hands of *slave-owners*. Is this giving the other citizens their *equal rights*? Nearly one hundred to one of the people of this country are not *slave-owners*, and more than three-fourths of the business of this court arises in the free States!

"There is a class of the people having more *political power*, than any other class of citizens—namely, the *slave-owners*. There are three hundred and forty-six thousand and forty-seven of them, including men, women, and children. They admit and boast that they have controlled the Government for sixty years, and do now. They own three million two hundred and four thousand two hundred and eighty-seven slaves. Three-fifths of them are counted; so that three hundred and forty-six thousand and forty-seven persons are counted as if they numbered in fact two million two hundred and sixty-eight thousand six hundred and nineteen in the scale of representation. These three hundred and forty-six thousand are counted nearly two million more than they are, because they own slaves. Instead of *three* Representatives in Congress, they have thirty, because they own slaves. But this is not all the *political power* they have. They control those States. The free whites in the slave States, not owning slaves, numbering five million eight hundred and thirty-eight thousand three hundred and fifty-seven, the great body of the people, do not seem practically to have any *political power*. Who ever heard of any of them being President, a Cabinet officer, a Senator, or a member of Congress, or a judge of the Supreme Court, or filling any other important office under this Government? The *slave-owners*, by their property and political privileges, are made the *ruling class* in those States. They control the press, and force submission to their will by a system of terrorism and constrained public sentiment. We

must add to their power the nearly six million non-slave-holders in the slave States. These three hundred and forty-six thousand slave-owners, bound together by a single interest, have therefore in their hands practically the *political power* of about eight million people bond and free. Do they claim more than that for their *equal rights*?

"We find that three hundred and forty-six thousand slave-holders have had one department of the Government in their hands absolutely—the judiciary; the executive practically, and also the legislative—all; and yet they are going out of the Union if they cannot have their equal rights."

"This is no over statement. More than twenty million *free people* are governed by some three hundred and forty-six thousand, and have been for sixty years; and they claim more, or will go out of the Union after equal rights. All I can say is, if they were fairly out of the Union we might, after their departure, have equal rights!"

STATISTICS OF THE WAR OF 1812-'15.

THE following, which we take from the remarks of Mr. Savage, of Tennessee, on his proposal to grant a pension to the survivors of the war of 1812, will be of general interest. The compliment which the honorable gentleman pays to our statistical opinions is gratefully acknowledged.

The war of 1812, (with Great Britain.)

The whole number of officers and men in the regular service during the war cannot be given. The following statement of the numbers at different periods of the war is the nearest approximation that can be made to it:

	Officers.	Men.	Aggregate.
July, 1812.....	301	6,383	6,686
February, 1813.....	1,476	17,560	19,036
September, 1814.....	2,895	33,791	38,186
February, 1815.....	2,396	31,028	33,424

The militia force mustered into the service of the United States during the war was 31,210 officers, 440,412 men; 471,622 aggregate.

Now, I have endeavored to inform myself as well as I could from the reports of former Congresses, and from all the authorities to which I have been able to obtain access, for the purpose of ascertaining, as far as possible, how many would be embraced within the provisions of this bill. There were, all told, 471,000 soldiers employed in the war of 1812, and of this number there were 168,982 who served three months, and would be entitled, if living, to the benefit of the provisions of this bill. I submit the following table, showing the number of men furnished by each State, and the time of service:

FRENCH MANUFACTURES.

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	Total.	In service three months.
New Hampshire.....	5,955	897
Massachusetts.....	46,539	3,110
Rhode Island.....	910	637
Connecticut.....	10,103	387
Vermont.....	5,236	131
New York.....	77,976	38,633
Tennessee.....	27,873	24,858
Virginia.....	91,881	39,017
North Carolina.....	14,187	4,573
South Carolina.....	11,223	5,696
Georgia.....	11,457	9,556
Kentucky.....	5,239	9,564
Mississippi.....	
Michigan.....	6,355	3,955
Ohio.....	24,703	9,388
Missouri.....	
Louisiana.....	9,786	2,928
Illinois.....	2,367	861
Indiana.....	3,380	583
District of Columbia.....	4,547	2,454
Ranger.....		2,995

Now, it is important, in order to ascertain how many are living to establish some sensible rule to enable us to come to some conclusion, as far as human reason will enable us. To arrive at such a rule, I have availed myself not only of my own calculations, but of those of two distinguished citizens whose opinions are entitled to as much consideration as those of any men living. I refer to Professor Tucker, of Philadelphia, and Mr. DeBow, late Superintendent of the Census, and editor of the Southern Review. I have statements from each of these gentlemen, which I will read to the House.

WASHINGTON, (D. C.) April 8, 1858.

MY DEAR SIR: Being on the eve of leaving the city for the South, I cannot make the calculations necessary to answer your question very accurately.

If one hundred and sixty thousand soldiers were enlisted for three months during the war of 1812-1815, I do not think, having reference to their habits, dangers, ages, &c., that more than twenty thousand can now be surviving, if so many.

Your obedient servant,

J. D. B. DE BOW.

Hon. Mr. SAVAGE.

April 10.—Since writing the above I have obtained the opinion of Professor Tucker, the distinguished American statistician, which corresponds with my own, and which I now transmit.

Yours,

J. D. B. DE BOW.

The ages supposed by Professor Tucker, were suggested by myself.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1858.

DEAR SIR: To answer your inquiries, received yesterday, with scientific accuracy, would require time and labor; I have, therefore, contented myself with an approximation which will fully answer your purpose, and the rather as the probabilities of life with the class of men in question are probably less than the average of the population generally, and for estimating the difference we have no reliable data:

Of the 160,000 men enlisted 1812—	
One-third between 15 and 25 years of age, is.....	53,333
One-half do 25 and 40 do	80,000
The residue or one-sixth.....	26,667
	160,000
Of the above 53,333, there are probably living in 1858,.....	12,500
do 80,000, do do do do	4,400
do 26,667, do do do do	925
Total.....	17,825

The above estimate is substantially conformable to the English tables, as well as to ours, and is consequently more likely to be over than under the real number.

I am, very truly, yours,

GEORGE TUCKER.

J. D. B. DE Bow, Esq., Washington.

PHILADELPHIA, April 10, 1858.

DEAR SIR: On revising my estimate, after I sent off my letter to you yesterday, I discovered a great error as to the oldest portion of the enlistments of 1812. The number of these survivors, instead of being nine hundred and twenty-five, should be three hundred and twenty-five.

Respectfully yours, GEORGE TUCKER.

J. D. B. DE Bow, Esq., Washington.

THE SLAVE-TRADE.

CONSIDERING the course very generally pursued by the press of Virginia in regard to the slave-trade, the following views of the Richmond Whig are certainly not a little remarkable.

"Some gentlemen of nervous organization see in the importation of Africans the instant dissolution of the Union. We are unable to appreciate the force of this logic. To our thinking, it will constitute a sovereign and almost instantaneous panacea for all abolition troubles. In the first place, it will give a large and powerful portion of the Northern people a direct interest in '*the institution*.' We allude to the shipping community, who will derive immense profits from the trade; and that, of course, will insure their good wishes and active co-operation in behalf of Southern rights. In the second place, it will give a quietus to the fugitive slave law; for the Abolitionists, instead of kidnapping negroes, or inveigling them from their masters, will be compelled to employ all their forces throughout the whole extent of their frontier, to prevent being overrun and colonized by '*the institution*.' The South would speedily regain its lost ascendancy; for, as a negro is an over-match for an Irishman in any fair field, we might forthwith take up the line of march, recapture Kansas, perhaps Indiana, Illinois, and even Ohio, and colonize all the remaining territories of the Confederacy. We should once more be a united and harmonious people, and the sounds of disunion would never grate upon the ear."

ART. VIII.—EARLY HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE IN VIRGINIA.

No. IV.

IMPLEMENTS.—The particulars of the outfit suitable for a planter are given by Smith, (II. 97,) and among these we find “felling axes, and frows to cleave pale with; hoes, broad and narrow, spades and shovels,” as suited for preparation and use in tillage, but no mention of *plows*. He elsewhere speaks of them as follows: In 1617 the Governor complained to the Company that the colony “did suffer for want of skilful husbandmen, and means to set their plows on work; having as good ground as any man can desire, and about forty bulls and oxen, but they wanted men to bring them to labor, and iron for the plows, and harness for the cattle. Some thirty or forty acres we had sown with one *plow*, but it stood so long on the ground before it was reaped, it was most shaken, and the rest spoiled with the cattle and rats in the barn, but no better corn could be for the quantity.”—II. 35. Stith, in repeating this statement, adds: “however, I find in our old records, that *some* plows by this time were now set to work.”—Page 147.

By 1648 something had been done to supply this deficiency—as appears from a document of this year, entitled “a perfect description of Virginia”—“there having been nothing related of the true estate of this plantation these twenty-five years,” and which gives minute and interesting details on many points of our agriculture. “Though this truly is the great labor in Virginia, to fell trees, and to get up the roots, and so make clear ground for the *plow*, * * * we have *many thousand acres* of clear land, I mean where the wood is all off it, (for you must know all Virginia is full of trees,) and we have now going near upon *a hundred and fifty plows*, with many brave yoke of oxen, and we sow excellent wheat, barley, rye, beans, peas, oats; and our increase is wonderful, and better grain not in the world.”—Historical Register II. 70, 74.

It thus appears that the plows first used in Virginia were *drawn by oxen*—a practice which afterwards fell almost wholly into disuse. The majority of those were probably either very complex and frail or very primitive—if we may judge from their figures in some of the old books—and in either case their work must have been very imperfectly done. New comers from abroad would be likely to use the British plow of their own day, until it was found to be ill-adapted to a new country, and that which at length was substituted for it here was a very inefficient implement and but little used in comparison with the spade and the hoe. We do not find in any of the histories or journals of travellers, a particular account of these or other implements in use at that day—nor until the times immediately preceding the Revolution. The “grubbing axe” or mattock was an efficient tool for clearing the ground, and is still used for that purpose. A correspondent of the American Farmer, who writes from Williamsburg in 1826, in speaking of those times, says, “I had seen one gentleman turning up his furrows with *four* horses to a *wheel-plow*, a postillion on the ‘near’

leading horse under the superintendence of an English farmer? I could detail many such facts, for the instruction and amusement of certain modern *illuminati*, whose vanity goes to the belief that good plowing, good plows, &c., were never known before the Revolution, or, more particularly, since the late war. The *Blythe* plow, or the swing-plow, resembled very much the modern plows; and these, with some little modification were what I commenced my career with."—Am. Farmer, VIII. 107. A machine so cumbrous—an experiment so costly as the former, was but little suited to the habits of the Virginians of that day, and the other and better implement could have made for a time but little progress beyond the district in which it first appeared. The plow of which tradition speaks was rather fitted to scarify the soil than to turn it over; and for this purpose it was not uncommon to attach a grubbing-hoe to an upright piece of timber inserted in the beam, which of course could penetrate to but a little depth in any other than the sandy lands of the lower country. Wheat was generally reaped with a sickle.* There were, however, some exceptions before this. The papers of the same gentleman who sowed the spring wheat, (Dr. William Cabell,) show that in a particular year, which was certainly before 1760, and probably earlier, he employed a Dutchman by the name of *Slo*, to reap his grain with a scythe and cradle.* The practice did not obtain general currency until long after. I also find these lines in old Tusser's list of "Husbandry Furniture":

"A brush-scythe and grass-scythe, with rifle to stand;
A cradle for barley, with rubstone and sand;
Sharp sickle and weed-hook, &c."

May not the first implement have been similar to our *brier-blade*? His editor, Mavor, thus explains two other terms used in the text. "A rifle or rufle, is a bent stick standing on the but of a scythe-sneid or handle, by which the corn is struck into rows. A cradle is a *three-forked* instrument of wood, on which the corn is caught as it falls from the scythe, and thus is laid in regular order." Tusser's "Hundred Good Points of Husbandry" first appeared in 1557. It was afterwards much enlarged, and as it continued for many generations the most popular book of its kind in England, we can hardly suppose that it was wholly unknown in Virginia. Both the scythe and the cradle, then, as distinguished from the sickle, were known there long ago. That they have never come into general use, is owing, in part, to the aversion of their laborers to all labor-saving implements or machines, as tending to throw them out of employment.

In the year 1774 there was instituted at Williamsburg a "Society for the Advancement of Useful Knowledge"—perhaps the first of its kind in the State—of which John Page, of Rosewell, was chosen President, though probably suggested by Col. Theodorick Bland, jr., as he certainly took an active part in its proceedings for some years.—Bland Papers, I. XXV. Agriculture was among the subjects discussed by

* The seythe had been long known in Flanders, as also in Normandy. Loudon's Enc. Ag. §405, 509. See also Memoirs of a Huguenot, 407, for what may be a yet earlier example of its use in Virginia.

this body, and in the year of its formation it voted a pecuniary reward and medal to a Mr. Holliday for his model of a very ingenious and useful machine for threshing out wheat.—Hist. Reg. VI. 218. What further influence for good it may have exerted does not appear; but so useful an example is worthy of commemoration. As yet also they had no fans. Small grain of every kind was separated from its chaff by throwing it against the wind, and further cleansed of its impurities by riddles or sieves, varying in fineness with the species of grain.

CATTLE AND OTHER STOCK.—As few or none of the domestic animals known in Britain were found in Virginia, the several kinds were brought over in small numbers by the first adventurers. But although the country proved to be well suited to them, the stocks, though renewed more than once, were as often nearly consumed by the colonists while awaiting supplies from home and before they were prepared to make sufficient provision for their own use. In 1616, Rolfe gives their respective numbers as follows; Cattle, 144; horses and mares, 6; goats, 216; hogs and poultry, without number. In the Indian massacre of 1622, most of these and their increase were destroyed. But from Smith, we learn that in 1629, the cattle had again increased to between 2 and 5,000.—II. 257, 259. In 1631, he gives the latter as the number.—Hist. Reg. I. 58. Laws were early passed for the preservation of females, and by 1648, they had again multiplied; the cattle to 20,000, although the ships coming here had been supplied with beef, and many others had been exported to New England; 200 horses, 50 asses, [does this imply that *mules* were also known among us at that day?] 3,000 sheep, wool of good quality, 5,000 goats, swine and poultry of all sorts innumerable. But during Bacon's rebellion there was again a great destruction of stock of all kinds.—Beverley, 89.

Besides, the natural grasses of the marshes and old fields, the upland parts, when first explored and settled, abounded with wild pea-vines and annual grasses, which furnished excellent range for stock from spring to autumn, and did not wholly perish in winter, but served to eke out the scanty food provided by their owners.

When this resource began to fail—as fail it did, at length, for reasons already given—they do not seem at once to have made corresponding efforts to increase the supply from other sources. Says Glover: “All that the inhabitants give their cattle in winter, is only the husks of their Indian corn, unless it be some of them that have a little *wheat-straw*; neither do they give them any more of these than will serve to keep them alive; by reason whereof they venture into the marshy grounds and swamps for food, where very many are lost.” Similar charges are urged by Beverley.—Hist. p. 236.

Clayton says farther, “that they neither housed nor milked their cows in winter, having a notion that it would kill them;” that he put his landlady on a better method, urging her to sow her wheat as early as possible, the which if well rooted would serve as grazing for her milch-cows and weak cattle in fall and spring,* in which case she

* We hardly need say that such a practice would not be indiscriminately recommended by judicious farmers now. Wheat sown thus early is more liable

might milk them with impunity and save the others; also to fit up her tobacco-houses—which at that season were ever empty—to shelter them in seasons of peculiar severity; that whereas, the custom of the country was to give them in winter a small quantity of corn in the ears, because it was more nourishing, he showed her how this needless waste might be avoided by substituting rough food in plenty, and taught her the importance of the *stimulus of distension* as an aid to digestion. He “advised her likewise to save and carefully gather the *Indian corn-tops* and *blades* and all her straw, and whatever could be made fodder for her cattle, for of this they get but little and no hay, though I was urging her to that too, and to sow *saint foin*; for being a sandy soil, I am confident it would turn to very good account.” That to obtain good hay and safe pastureage, he taught her, moreover, both by precept and example, the importance of *draining* such of her marshes as lay on a firm foundation. *All these projects*, as he relates, *were successfully carried out in her case; and we may suppose that her example herein—with one exception—was followed by others.* Beverley, indeed, complains sometime thereafter that very few marshes had been drained; (*History of Virginia*, p. 262,) but stocks of different kinds must have received increased attention previous to 1724. “For,” says Jones, “horned cattle, sheep and hogs thrive and increase there mightily.” “Their beef and veal is small, sweet, and fat enough. * * * Their butter good and plentiful enough.”—Pages 42, 126. Burnaby, who visited the Valley in 1760, relates that the Germans, who had settled in the vale of Shenandoah, “gained a sufficient livelihood by raising stock for the troops and sending butter down into the lower parts of the country.”—Hist. Reg. V. 152.

None of these early accounts discriminate the cattle of Virginia, according to different breeds. But that there were several varieties we have otherwise reason to believe. Some of the first importations were from Ireland.—Smith, II. 60; Stith, 202, 205. Scotland, Wales, Holland, and probably Germany, through Pennsylvania, also furnished quotas. But much the largest contributions were received from England. Each of these types is well defined by characteristic marks as laid down in the English books. And he who, with these in mind, will traverse eastern and middle Virginia, and observe such of the original herds of the country as have been least mixed with the blood of improved animals of recent importation, will find that the distinctive traits of the Irish, Welsh, Galloway, Aryshire, and *old* Devon breeds are not yet wholly obliterated. The Hereford, however, is the prevailing type. No doubt all these different kinds became more or less mixed, and each in its average specimens degenerated, to the cause of which we shall presently advert.

Of *sheep*, we find but little mention for many years, beyond the facts

to attacks of Hessian fly. It may be harmless to graze slightly *very rank* wheat, and beneficial to crop such as has been invaded by the fly or joint-worm. *Sandy* soils laid down in wheat are more likely to be equably set in clover, if before the seed are scattered, the ground is trodden by *sheep*. But to graze the wheat on a medium or poor soil, besides lessening its yield, is thought to favor the growth of *cheat*.

that some few were brought over at first and thrived well; (Smith I. 128;) and that in 1648, after all disasters, they had increased to three thousand, good wool. Laws forbidding the exportation of either sheep or wool were passed in 1657. Says Glover, "as to their sheep, they keep but few, being discouraged by the wolves, which are all over the country, and do much mischief amongst their flocks." And Clayton: "Their sheep are of a middling size, pretty fine fleece in general, and most persons of estates *begin to keep flocks*, which hitherto has not been much regarded, because of the wolves that destroy them; so that a piece of mutton is a finer treat than either venison, wild goose, duck, widgeon, or teal." Beverley's account is even less favorable. "Their sheep yield good increase, and bear good fleeces, but they shear them only to cool them." Again: "Their sheep increase well and bear good fleeces; but they generally are suffered to be torn off their backs by briars and bushes, instead of being shorn, or else are left rotting upon the dung-hill with their skins."—Pages 229, 262. These surely must have been exceptional cases. Jones: "As for wool, I have had near as good as any near Leominster; and it might be much improved if the sheep were housed every night, and foddered and littered as in Urehinfield, where they have by such means the finest wool; but to do this would be of little use, since *it is contrary to the interest of Great Britain to allow them exportation of their manufactures, &c.*" Again: "Their mutton and lamb some people do not like." * * * * "But sheep thrive and increase there mightily;" * * * * "and there is in Virginia as good wool as the finest in England; and I doubt not but with good management the climate will produce as fine as any in Spain, since the sheep in both places are of British original."—Pages 41, 42, 126. But Burnaby reports, 1759: "The sheep and horned cattle in Virginia being small and lean, the most of them is inferior to that of Great Britain, or indeed, of most parts of Europe."—Hist. Reg. V.

As *swine* are more prolific than any other domestic animals, and as the forests and marshes afforded an abundance of mast, wild fruits, and vermin of various kinds, a small original stock would serve as a sufficient basis for the rapid increase of which we read. Many of them soon run wild in the woods and served for game both to the Indian and white hunters. So early as 1616, Rolfe says they "are not to be numbered." Smith, in 1620, that "no family is so poor that hath not tame swine sufficient."—II. 257. In 1631, that, "with other stocks and provisions, they have sufficient and to spare, to entertain three or four hundred people."—Hist. Reg. I. 58. In 1648, "both tame and wild (in the woods) innumerable; the flesh pure and good, and bacon none better."—Hist. Reg. II. 62. Glover says, "that from the abundance of fruits in their orchards—particularly peaches—large quantities were given to their hogs." Clayton: "Swine they have now in great abundance. Shoats or porkrels are *their general food*, and I believe as good as any in Westphalia; certainly far exceeding our English." "Hogs swarm like vermin upon the earth, and are often accounted such, insomuch, that when an inventory is taken by the executors, the hogs are left out and are not listed in the appraisement. The hogs

run where they list, and find their own support in the woods, without any care of the owner; and in many plantations it is well if the proprietor can find and catch the pigs, or any part of the farrow, when they are young to mark them; for if there be any marked in a gang of hogs, they determine the proprietary of the rest, because they seldom miss their gangs; but as they are bred in company, so they continue to the end; except sometimes the boars ramble."—Beverley, 262. Jones: "Hogs will run fat with certain roots of flags and reeds, which abounding in the marshes they root up and eat. But Indian corn is their best food; and their pork is famous, whole Virginia shoats being frequently *barbacued* in England; their bacon is excellent, the hams being scarce to be distinguished from those of Westphalia."—Pages 41, 42. Burnaby: "The Virginia pork is said to be superior in flavor to any in the world."—Hist. Reg. V. 38. A certain amount of these several kinds of stock would be necessary to the comfortable subsistence and clothing of the planters' family, and to the maintenance of that hospitality for which he was distinguished from of old. Oxen, as well as horses, would also be required for draught. Up to this point it was for a long season not difficult to rear them. Beyond this, in his peculiar circumstances, it became a secondary object; and in that proportion were the animals neglected, and the degeneracy which followed was hastened by another cause, which would be greater or less in different localities.

"Wild bulls and cows," says Clayton, "there are now in the uninhabited parts, but such only as have been bred from some that strayed and became wild, and have propagated their kind and are difficult to be shot, having a great acuteness of smelling. The common rate of a cow and calf is fifty shillings, *be she big or little, they are never curious to examine that point.*" Perhaps not; yet were there other points worthy of notice, and which we think could not have been wholly overlooked even by the careless Virginians. Colonel Robert Carter, of the Northern Neck, in 1723, while cheapening an estate which he wished to purchase *with the stock upon it*, gives an unfavorable account of the cattle, horses, and hogs; but one which we should hardly think applicable to the whole province, or even the greater part of it at that time.—Southern Planter, II. 40.

Mr. Jefferson, in combating the absurd prejudice of Count de Buffon, "that as an incident of the climate, all animals degenerated in America," denies the law, while he admits the fact, ascribing it to neglect and insufficient food—the which as we have seen is no matter of conjecture—and adds: "It may be affirmed with truth, that in those countries, and with those individuals in America, where necessity or curiosity has produced equal attention as in Europe to the nourishment of animals, the horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs of our continent are as large as those of the other. There are particular instances, well attested, where individuals of this country *have imported good breeders from England*, and have improved their size in some years."—Notes on Virginia, 59.

There is also a curious passage in Adam Smith, which not only confirms this reasoning, but will serve to show that America is not the

only country whose people, while intently pursuing certain objects, have overlooked others which were both desirable and attainable; where similar consequences have resulted from like neglect, and have been retrieved by the same means.

"The want of manure, and the disproportion between the stock employed in cultivation, and the land which it is destined to cultivate, are likely to introduce in the English colonies in North America, a system of husbandry not unlike that which still continues to take place in so many parts of *Scotland*. Mr. *Kalm*, the Swedish traveler, when he gives us an account of the husbandry of some of those colonies, as he found it 1749, observes accordingly, *that he can, with difficulty, discover there the character of the English nation, so well skilled in all the different branches of agriculture.* They make scarce any manure for their corn fields, he says; but when one piece of ground has been exhausted by continual cropping, they clear and cultivate another piece of fresh land; and when that is exhausted, proceed to a third. Their cattle are allowed to wander through the woods and other uncultivated grounds, where they are half-starved; having long ago extirpated almost all the annual grasses by cropping them too early in the spring, before they had time to form their flowers, or to shed their seeds. The annual grasses were, it seems, the best natural grasses in that part of North America; and when the Europeans first settled there, they used to grow very thick and to rise *three or four feet high*. A piece of ground which, when he wrote, could not maintain one cow, would in former times, he was assured, have maintained four, each of which would have given four times the quantity of milk which that one was capable of giving. The poor ness of the pasture had, in his opinion, occasioned the degradation of their cattle, which degenerated sensibly from one generation to another. They were probably not unlike that stunted breed which was common *all over Scotland* thirty or forty years ago, and which is *now so much mended* through the greater part of the low country, and not so much by *a change of the breed, though that expedient has been employed in some places*, as by a more plentiful method of feeding them."—Wealth of Nations, B. I. Ch. XI.

There are several considerations which should induce a doubt, whether matters in Virginia had ever reached a pass so low as that here spoken of. While certain favorable circumstances in our situation would operate to retard the progress of degeneracy, direct efforts to arrest it, were probably made by many. Our climate is milder; our winter shorter: the offal of Indian corn in winter, and the marshes and forests from spring to autumn, which were *in effect unappropriated commons*, offered resources unknown in bleak, treeless Scotland. These unfavorable reports proceed from foreigners, generally of England, where the rearing of cattle has for ages been a primary object, and who were prone to dwell on *size* as an indispensable test of excellence. We may, therefore, qualify their testimony by the experience and reasoning of one of their own countrymen, whose authority on this subject is deservedly high. Sir J. S. Sebright, in his essay on "The Art of Improving Domestic Animals," says: "Many causes combine to

prevent animals *in a state of nature*, from degenerating; they are perpetually intermixing, and, therefore, do not feel the bad effects of breeding *in-and-in*. The perfections of some correct the imperfections of others, and they go on without any material alteration, except what arises from the effect of food and climate. The greatest number of females, will of course, fall to the share of the most vigorous males; and *the strongest individuals of both sexes*, by driving away the weakest, will enjoy the best food, and the most favorable situations, for themselves and for their offspring. A severe winter, or a scarcity of food, *by destroying the weak and the unhealthy, has all the good effect of the most skillful selection*. In cold, barren countries no animals can live to the age of maturity but those who have strong constitutions; the weak and unhealthy do not live to propagate their infirmities, as is too often the case with our domestic animals. To this I attribute the peculiar hardiness of the horses, cattle, and sheep, bred in mountainous countries, more than to their having been inured to the severity of the climate."—American Farmer, VII. 370.

These remarks are very suggestive, and not inapplicable to the Virginia cattle of that day, many of which were virtually in the state here described. The probability is, that then, as afterwards, all large herds were divided into *two classes, which received widely different treatment*. Work oxen and the best milkers among the cows would be favored in winter with more and better food and shelter, and not prepared for the butcher until age had rendered them otherwise useless. Cows of inferior quality would be milked only in summer, and on the approach of winter would be left, with other cattle of their own grade, to harder fare. The common range would ordinarily be sufficient to recruit them in the mild season, and with little extra food to fit them for the shambles; and accordingly from this class were obtained their principal supplies of beef. Nor were the animals of either class left to mix at random. The same authority defines the art of breeding as "the selection of males and females intended to breed together, in reference to each other's merits and defects." There can be no doubt that the ancient Virginians understood this art in its application to *horses*. And this was true of the whole colonial era. They were at great expense in procuring those of the best blood from abroad, and showed great constancy and sagacity in preserving and improving their qualities. It is difficult to believe that those who were so successful here should wholly fail to apply the same principles in rearing other animals. No doubt they often erred in judgment, as this branch of the subject was not then reduced to a science; but the matter was not wholly left to chance or caprice. The three great desiderata in cattle were recognised then as now. Of oxen they would soon learn by experience which were the most hardy, strong, and tractable; of cows which yielded the largest tribute to the dairy; and, as beeves were stalled then as now, which of them most readily took on fat. Observation would show that these several qualities were more conspicuous in animals of particular families, and interest would suggest that from such should be selected the males and females intended to perpetuate the race.

It must be owned that among our people were many superficial observers who attached but little importance to the mere *form* of animals, and who supposed that, in the case of cattle and hogs especially, any defects which had been induced by a stint of food would be corrected by a more liberal supply. This error was widely prevalent, and was embodied in the proverb, "English feed makes English breed." But there were enough of the other class to redeem Virginia from the reproach of entirely neglecting so important a branch of husbandry.

It is also pertinent to remark, that many large proprietors in the eastern counties, and of those who had done most to improve the breed of horses, during the colonial period, held and cultivated estates higher up the country and nearer the frontier, where the natural range, or pasture of the fields, was better than at their places of residence; where they could more easily carry out judicious plans in regard to stock, and from whence, in fact, they drew a great part of their supplies in this kind. Attention to this subject varied with individuals and fluctuated at different times, but never wholly subsided. From the era of the successful efforts of Bakewell and Culley in improving the sheep and cattle of England, we might suppose that some of the zeal inspired by their methods and principles would extend to Virginia, and give a renewed impulse to the same interest here. And this we learn was the case.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—IS OUR NATIONAL AGRICULTURE DETERIORATING?

The Hon. Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, delivered some remarks the other day in Congress, upon a proposition to endow with the public lands, Agricultural Colleges in the several States. Without expressing any opinion in regard to the proposition, we cannot refrain from introducing some of his views which demonstrate a declining ratio of increase in agricultural development, and a condition of things very far from gratifying in regard to the improvement and exhaustion of soils among us. Of the decline in Northern agriculture we have furnished evidence on previous occasions in the pages of the Review. Mr. Morrill says:

The prosperity and happiness of a large and populous nation depend—

1. Upon the division of the land into small parcels.
2. Upon the education of the proprietors of the soil.

Our agriculturists, as a whole, instead of seeking a higher cultivation, are extending their boundaries; and their education, on the contrary, is limited to the metes and bounds of their forefathers.

If it be true that the common mode of cultivating the soil in all parts of our country is so defective as to make the soil poorer year by year, it is a most deplorable fact, and a fact of national concern. If we are steadily impairing the natural productiveness of the soil, it is a national waste, compensated only by private robbery. What are the facts?

New England, the pasture-fed stock is not on the increase, and sheep-husbandry is gradually growing of less importance, excepting, perhaps, in Vermont and New Hampshire. The wheat crop, once abundant, is now inconsi-

rable. The following table will exhibit something of the depreciation of the crops in ten years:

	<i>Wheat—bushels.</i>	<i>Potatoes—bushels.</i>
	1840.	1850.
Connecticut.....	87,000	41,000
Massachusetts.....	157,923	31,211
Rhode Island.....	3,098	49
New Hampshire.....	422,124	185,658
Maine.....	848,166	296,259
Vermont.....	495,800	535,955
	2,014,111	1,090,132
	35,180,500	19,418,191

In many of the Southern States the decreasing production is equally marked.

	<i>Wheat, bushels in 1840.</i>	<i>In 1850.</i>
Tennessee.....	4,569,692	1,619,386
Kentucky.....	4,803,152	2,142,822
Georgia.....	1,801,880	1,088,534
Alabama	838,052	294,044
	12,012,726	5,144,796

These facts, after all proper allowances for errors and a short crop, establish, conclusively, that in all parts of our country important elements in the soil have been exhausted; and its fertility, in spite of all improvements is steadily sinking. The number of acres of land in use in the State of New York, in 1825, was 7,160,967; in 1855, the number had increased to 26,758,182 acres; but the number of sheep had decreased so that there were nearly three hundred thousand less than there were thirty years ago; and within a period of five years the decrease has been nearly fifty per cent., while the decrease in the number of horses, cows, and swine, is above fifteen per cent. In 1845 the product of wheat was 13,391,770 bushels. It has steadily declined since, until the product of the past year did not exceed 6,000,000 bushels. The average yield of corn per acre in 1844 was 24.75 bushels; but in 1854 it was only 21.02 bushels.

The planting lands of Southern States have also greatly deteriorated, and some new fertilizer, beyond rotation of crops, is anxiously sought. The average crop of wheat in Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina for 1850, was only seven bushels per acre. In Alabama and Georgia but five bushels per acre. And even the largest of any State in the Union, that of Massachusetts, was but sixteen bushels per acre; and this, with the leanest soil, proves her agricultural science far in advance of her sister States. While the crop of cotton in the new lands of Texas and Arkansas was seven hundred to seven hundred and fifty pounds per acre, it was but three hundred and twenty pounds per acre in the older cultivated fields of South Carolina.

In a Southern journal I find the following statement:

"An Alabama planter says that cotton has destroyed more than earthquakes or volcanic eruptions. Witness the red hills of Georgia and South Carolina, which have produced cotton till the last dying gasp of the soil forbade any further attempt at cultivation; and the land, turned out to nature, reminds the traveler, as he views the dilapidated condition of the country, of the ruins of ancient Greece."

In Virginia, the crop of tobacco in 1850 was less than that of 1840, by over eighteen million pounds. No crop has proved more destructive to the fertility of the soil than the tobacco crop, and this staple commodity, unless a cheap and effective remedy can be found, must be either banished or it will banish the cultivators. In this State, where tobacco, corn, and wheat have been continued for a century, many districts are no longer cultivated. Liebig says, "that from every acre of this land, there were removed in the space of one hundred years, twelve hundred pounds of alkalies, in leaves, grain, and straw." In a letter of General Washington, dated August 6, 1786, to a friend (Arthur Young) in England, he writes:

"The system of agriculture, if the epithet system can be applied to it, which is in use in this part of the United States, is as unproductive to the practitioners as it is ruinous to the landholders. Yet it is pertinaciously adhered to."

Writing to the same person, at a subsequent date, (December 5, 1791,) he says:

"The English farmer must entertain a contemptible opinion of our husbandry, or a horrid idea of our land, when he is to be informed that not more than eight or ten bushels of wheat is the yield of an acre."

Since these words were written, little has been done to elevate the character of Virginia farming, and Mount Vernon itself, losing the eye of its master, has lapsed into the general degeneracy. While the yield of wheat has increased in England to thirty bushels per acre, it has sunk to seven in Virginia. The opinion of the "English farmer" may be imagined.

In an address of the late Hon. A. Stevenson, in 1850, to the Agricultural Society of Albemarle, in Virginia, he said :

"It can hardly be necessary to attempt to impress upon you the depressed and wretched condition of the farming interests throughout the State at large, with the exception of some few portions of it, which constitute honorable and praiseworthy exceptions."

Even in Ohio the wheat crop is already less remunerative than formerly, and fields long cultivated are given up to pasture. In Indiana, Kentucky, and Illinois, where so large an amount of grain is sold and carried off, instead of being fed out to stock, they are selling their lands by the bushel in the shape of wheat and corn, and that for a price utterly ruinous. Commerce, founded upon such agricultural economy as this, must come to an end, although the folly will continue to be avenged on posterity even to the third and fourth generation.

In the agricultural survey of Mississippi, recently published, Mr. Harper, speaking of the system pursued in that State, says :

"This agriculture has hitherto been a very exhausting one. Mississippi is a new State ; it dates its existence only from the year 1818 ; and notwithstanding all its fertility, a large part of the land is already exhausted ; the State is full of old deserted fields."

A recent address issued by the agricultural convention in South Carolina, declares :

"Our stocks of hogs, horses, mules, and cattle are diminishing in size and decreasing in number, and our purses are being strained for their last cent to supply their places from the Northwestern States."

In the late message of the Governor of Georgia, he eloquently descants upon the "educational wants" of his State, and among many other facts, he notices "the exhaustion of the soil under a system of agriculture that glories in excluding the application of scientific principles."

My time will not permit a greater accumulation of evidence on this point, although I have a cloud of witnesses in reserve, nor is pointing out the nakedness of the land an agreeable duty. The leading fact, however, of a widespread deterioration of the soil, stands out too boldly to be denied. The great irreversible law of American agriculture appears in the constant and increasing diminution of agricultural products, without any advance in prices. It follows, just in proportion, that capital is disappearing, and that labor receives a diminishing reward. Our country is growing debilitated, and we propagate the consumptive disease with all the energy of private enterprise and public patronage.

There is little doubt but that three-fourths of the arable land of our whole country is more or less subjected to this process of exhaustion. It has been estimated by Dr. Lee, of Georgia, that the annual income of the soil of not less than one hundred millions of acres of land in the United States is diminishing at the rate of ten cents an acre. This would amount to \$10,000,000, and involve the loss of a capital of \$166,666,666 annually. A sum greater than all our national and State taxation !

Men waste hundreds of acres of land on the theory that it is inexhaustible, whose entire wealth might not purchase the raw materials—the magnesia, lime, soda, potash, phosphorous, sulphur, carbon, nitrogen, &c.—necessary to make a single acre possessing primitive fertility. Thus the accumulated store of ages passes away in a single generation.

And this waste of soil is not the only thing wasted. For want of the knowledge and skill which the institutions aimed at can alone impart, Colonel Wilder, a gentleman of well earned fame, estimates the annual loss of the single State of Massachusetts, in the one product of her cereal grains, at \$2,000,000. Another gentleman, in the same State, of great experience in the line of stock, dairy, &c., reports the loss from the same ignorance and unskillfulness in these interests, at \$15,000,000 for that State alone. The loss of New York, upon her four hundred and forty-seven thousand and fourteen horses, (and Ohio, by the census of 1850, had more,) through the universal incompetency in the veterinary art, has been reckoned at not less than \$2,000,000.

WHAT IS DONE FOR AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

The system of education is known to be more complete in Prussia than in any other nation of Europe. It may be said that all the children attend school until they are thirteen years old; and agricultural colleges, and schools for the mechanic arts and higher trades, are liberally sustained, and with a much larger staff of professors than is common in the United States. This nation is making rapid progress in wealth and intelligence.

In Saxony they have a number of experiment stations, or experimental farms, with laboratories attached, and five or more schools exclusively for agriculture. There is no country in the world where agriculture and all branches of industry are pursued with more enterprise and success than in the little monarchy of Saxony; and there, of 315,185 children between the ages of six and fourteen years, 311,454 were, in 1851, in actual attendance at school.

Belgium has its agricultural schools also, and great opportunities for general education are given, especially in the larger towns. Here farming is conducted most on a scientific basis; and Belgium, supporting a population of three hundred and thirty six to the square mile, in a climate inferior to that of Kentucky or Virginia, averaging only twenty-six and twenty-three to the square mile, is the first in rank as an agricultural State in Europe. Its once noted battle-fields are now equally noted as model farms. This preëminence is chiefly the result of scientific attention to manures.

France, from the time of Napoleon, has done much for agriculture. Beet-sugar, the mulberry, the grape, as well as Merino sheep and the Thibet goat, have received imperial attention. No expense in France is shirked in the cause of agricultural science. Her botanical gardens, chemical laboratories, physiological museums, and schools for instructions in the veterinary art, surpass all others in existence, and with her five agricultural colleges, and almost one hundred inferior agricultural schools, are performing herculean labors for the elevation of the farming population of the empire. The Revolution and the successive wars loaded France with an immense debt; but this was rapidly extinguished from the never-failing resources of her soil. The abrogation of the game laws and many other feudal enactments has aided her progress, but the breaking up and division of every estate at the death of the owner, doubtless retards much of permanent improvement. But for this abuse of a true principle, and the illiterate condition of her people, France would have been the pioneer of rural economy.

As it is, we look more to England and Scotland, and to Ireland, to some extent, for principles and facts for our instruction. Here we find agriculture developed in all its noblest attitudes. Science, wealth, taste, mind, and rank, combine to increase its profit, beauty, and honor. The large fortunes of individuals enable science to delve constantly in its behalf; but the Government, far from thinking that enough, annually contributes liberally to the same object, especially in Ireland. Colleges and schools of agriculture are numerous in Great Britain, but their usefulness is greatly restricted on account of the limited attendance arising from the jealousies of caste. Agricultural improvement is imposed on such a people from necessity. The heavy taxation, the enormous

consumption of luxuries, and density of population, could not be otherwise supported. Science, like the rod of Aaron, has touched the soil, and, behold! the crops are doubled. Nothing but this in Ireland could have checked the dispersion of a nation—a nation, too, that in ten years preceding 1846, exported more grain than all of the United States. Notwithstanding the magnificent proportions of her commerce, freckling all seas with its flag, and notwithstanding her all-embracing manufactures, with their countless fires blazing day and night, England, were her agriculture to retrograde, or the land fail “to yield her increase,” would be numbered with things that were, and the earth no more rock at the sound of Trafalgar or Waterloo.

The Government of Russia, the growing giant of Europe, has recently taken a conspicuous lead in the education of its people, and the cause of agriculture there holds a deserved prominence. Of colleges, schools, and special schools devoted to agriculture, Russia maintains a greater number than any other nation, France only excepted. No nation has arisen in the political firmament with a steadier splendor than the great northern bear, which, instead of pawing, like Milton's lion, “his hinder-parts to get free” from the mud of the Nile, is struggling to get free from the Polar ice of ignorance. The back-bone of Russia, in her recent contest, lay in her agricultural forces, and against these but half-tutored resources of men and wealth, half the strength of Europe could only wage a drawn battle. Here we find a despotism, from motives merely of governmental policy, elevating labor, placing it within the power of her agriculturists and artisans to become educated and skillful, while our people, with the Government in their own hands, parley on the brink, and do nothing for their own benefit.

Spain is weak in all her industry, because, while an uneducated Spanish gentleman, it is said, cannot be found, so neither can a peasant be found who can read or write.

Italy, anciently far in advance of all her contemporaries, in theory and practice, is now behind all other States in her farming and industrial pursuits, and here we find but one person in fifty provided with any instruction whatever.

I might contrast Bohemia with Saxony, and even Ireland with England, or the different cantons of Switzerland with each other, to show the difference between ignorant and educated culture of the soil, but I have not space.

2.—COTTON AND ITS DESTINY.

THE United States Economist is one of the ablest statistical and financial journals published in this or any other country. The Editor has recently examined at length the relations of demand, and supply of the cotton crop, and conclusively shows how the former is gaining and must gain upon the latter, notwithstanding the fear of some recent writers, whose speculations have been admitted into the Review. We quote:

The continued anxiety of the manufacturers abroad in relation to cotton supplies, is not likely to be relieved by the continued high prices of the article, inasmuch as that those do not, as it was hoped they would, stimulate the growth elsewhere. We have, therefore, made some remarks upon the fact that no country but the United States produces a surplus of cotton. That is to say, the other sources of supply—Brazil, Egypt, East and West Indies—all buy a greater weight of cotton in the shape of goods, than they sell in raw material. This is a fact not sufficiently borne in mind, since it is one which is destined to produce immense changes in the face of affairs. During the last fifteen years, the condition of the human race has become greatly ameliorated in respect of the necessities of life. In England, the difference between the condition of the mass of the people now and during the French war, is almost as great as if in that time they had emerged from barbarism. The populations of Europe are making rapid strides in the same direction. Everywhere legal restrictions upon traffic are being removed, and a more active interchange of international commodities is taking place. The condition of the people manifests itself in the improved quantity and quality of clothing they enjoy; while the material of that clothing had been drawn almost altogether from the Southern United States in the

shape of cotton. The British authorities do not scruple to ascribe to cotton alone the entire honor of their success in the Napoleon wars. Mr. Porter, on the "Progress of the Nation," remarks:

"It is to the spinning-jenny and the steam-engine that we must look for the true power of our fleets and armies, and as the chief support, also, of a long continued agricultural prosperity."

J. McGregor says:

"The steam-engine and the spinning-jenny enabled her, (England,) in defiance of the wars of Napoleon, in spite of high taxation and dear bread, to enrich herself so as to pay all burdens," &c.

The inventions of Watt and Hargrave, says the British historian, conquered Napoleon; but those inventions only facilitated the manufacture of cotton. Hence, when Sir Archibald Alison alleges that the development of the English cotton machinery were the real conquerors of Napoleon, he falls short in his penetration of the original cause, which was the great staple of the South. The Southern United States gave England the honor of the European victories and conferred wealth upon her. She sought emancipation from that source of supply, by seeking it in the West Indies, and by promoting her rule in the East. During more than a quarter of a century the chimera of East India cotton has amused many statesmen. In 1818 there were imported into Great Britain 177,600,000 lbs. of cotton. Of this quantity 67,456,411 lbs., or more than one-third, came from India. In the same year England imported from India 2,100,000 pieces of cotton goods, 5,600,000 yards. We may compare this with the first year's business with India.

Import and export of cotton and cotton goods to and from Great Britain and India.

	IMPORTED FROM.		EXPORTED TO.	
	Cotton, lbs.	Goods, pieces.	Goods, yards.	Yarn, lbs.
1818.....	67,456,411	1,601,920	8,842,046	1,861
1827.....	31,339,310	1,091,820	42,566,872	3,242,478
1856.....	147,438,266	257,720	552,305,631	29,127,116
1857.....

"This has been the result of procuring supplies from India, viz: In 1818, England got from this country 67,416,000 lbs. of raw cotton, and 30,000,000 yards of cotton more than she sent. In 1856, she sent to America, in goods, 151,900,000 lbs. of cotton, and got back 147,438,000 of raw cotton, or 4,500,000 lbs. less than she sent. This result seems to be a little singular at first, but a little reflection shows it to be inevitable. There are in India 135,000,000 of souls, occupying a climate to which cotton clothing is alone suitable. That clothing was, and is made by hand. Before machinery was invented, those goods made by the dexterous Indians could be sold to advantage in England, in competition with the humbler of that country. The invention of cotton machinery threw out of employ all the hand laborers of England, and finally those of Europe, substituting power-loom goods. Since that era, viz: in the last thirty years—the English power in India has been gradually consolidating, undoubtedly much to the improvement of the people, whose employments have multiplied. Hence what is effectual in England becomes inevitable in India, viz: that machine goods should supplant hand goods, and enhance the quantity consumed.

"The quantity of cotton cloth consumed in the United States is nearly as follows:

Imports cotton goods, 1856, yards.....	257,000,000
Manufactured cotton goods, yards.....	620,000,000
Total yards.....	877,000,000
Exports domestic goods.....	40,000,000
Complete yards.....	837,000,000

"This would give thirty-one yards per head of the population, worth \$3. Now the people of India probably wear a large quantity of cotton, since the male dresses are nearly all cotton; while in the United States the shirt only is cotton. If, however, we allow about the same quantity, say thirty yards, to a population of 131,000,000 souls, we have a consumption equal to 3,900,000 bales of cotton, worked up by hand, for garments for the natives. All that labor has to be supplied by machinery, and with the substitution the demand for cloth will increase as it has elsewhere. And there can, under no circumstances, ever be a surplus of cotton there. Events now point to a change in China similar to that which has taken place in India, and the conflict between power-loom and hand-loom goods is about to take place. The vast quantity of cotton used in China is seldom brought under the eyes of European merchants, since they give no surplus for sale. What is known of China is that the substantial cloth known as nankeen, is the very extensive product of Chinese looms in the central provinces, and dyed blue, becomes the garments of almost all the people. Now in regard to the population of China, there is much difference of opinion. The last census, given in 1812, is supposed to be the most reliable, and it gave 362,467,183 souls. The best authorities consider it as the most accurate. Now if we take the previous census we have results as follows:

	POPULATION OF CHINA.			
	Years.	Increase.	Per annum.	Per ct.
1711.....	28,605,716
1753.....	103,050,060	42	74,222,602	1,764,824 2½
1792.....	307,467,200	39	204,417,140	5,510,401 5½
1812.....	362,467,183	30	54,126,679	2,706,333 1
1856.....	481,700,000	44	119,240,000	2,710,000 ¼

"There is an evident discrepancy in the census of 1812, but otherwise the increase seems to be regular. The rule of increase in all countries decreases in proportion to the numbers, and we here estimate the increase since 1812 at three-fourths of one per cent., which would give a present population of 481,700,000 souls. Now, as we have said, the use of cotton in China is great; if, however, we estimate it at the same in the United States, or twelve pounds per head per annum, the result would be a consumption of 12,000,000 bales per annum produced and consumed in China. But in addition to those vast supplies, China has been a large consumer for India cotton—80,000,000 pounds per annum—and also for English and United States goods. The machine goods are to supplant the hand goods, more particularly that neither in India or China is the art of printing arrived at. That what is going on in France, in the substitution of gold for \$600,000,000 of silver currency, is to take place in India and China, in relation to cotton goods, viz.: the substitution of machine goods, to the extent of 15,000,000 bales of cotton, or five times the United States crop, per annum, for hand-loom goods. By that process the demand for cotton will increase faster than its production even in those regions, and the strain upon the capacity of the South to supply Europe become annually greater.

3.—HOW ENGLAND IS FED.

THE enormous extent to which England is carried in her demand upon other countries for grain is scarcely understood among us. For the four years which preceded the present, her imports of breadstuffs for home uses, reached an average of between \$130,000,000 and \$140,000,000, an amount as large as the whole cotton crop of this country. Mr. Caird said, in a recent speech in Parliament:

"In 1852, our imports of foreign corn were valued at about £12,800,000, and in 1856, at £31,400,000; showing an increased export of bullion and capital in the latter year to the amount of £18,600,000, which must have produced a serious effect upon the commercial action of the country. In the four years, from 1850 to 1853, this country paid for foreign corn and rice about £64,000,000; and in the four years from 1854 to 1857, no less than £111,000,000, there having

been within the last four years a total increase of £47,000,000, or an average increase of about £12,000,000 a year. The amount thus sent abroad in payment for corn must have had a material effect in causing the commercial crisis of last November. He had been informed that, in consequence of the enormous importations of rice which had taken place, £1,000,000 had been lost during the last year upon that article alone. The importations of rice began to increase in 1855, owing to the high price of corn in the previous year, and it appeared that 170,000 tons of rice had been imported from India alone during each of the last two years."

4.—THE HORSE, AND HOW TO TAME HIM.

OUR readers have seen some accounts of the magical process of horse taming which is practiced by certain persons, and of which they have preserved the secret very closely. Mr. Rarey, who has had great success in this particular, has lately written a letter for the *New England Farmer*, from which, we make an extract. He says:

"The art of subduing horses of vicious and ungovernable dispositions, has assumed an importance only commensurate to its great utility. The wonderful success of our countryman, Mr. Rarey, in England and France, has created a great excitement, and a consequent desire to be informed of the method by which these astonishing results are achieved. I am more particularly induced to revert to this subject, from the fact that numerous recipes have been published in New England papers, professing to be the method by which Mr. Rarey subjugates and has acquired so much control over the horse. One of the receipts is as follows: 'Take the grated horse-castor or wart, which grows on the inside of the horse's legs, put it on an apple or other enticing substance, and let him eat it; then rub a few drops of the oils *Cumin* and *Rhodium* upon his nose.'

"It is stated that these drugs possess some potent charm by which the animal is rendered obnoxious to his vicious propensities, and his disposition radically changed to that of subservience, docility, and implicit obedience to the mandates of his conqueror. In response to which I unreservedly assert that no such result is produced. The horse castor exhales an extremely pungent ammoniacal effluvium. The oil of Cumin is manufactured from the seed of the same name, and in smell somewhat resembles turpentine; it is very persistent, and will volatize its strong odor without any perceptible diminution for several days. The oil of Rhodium takes its name from the island of Rhodes or roses. It is procured by maceration from rose-leaves, and has a very agreeable and powerful aroma. The use of the drugs in subduing an ungovernable animal is quite limited. Their powerful smells serve to attract his attention for a few moments, and in this manner, may possibly prove auxiliary to subsequent operations in ameliorating his incorrigible temper.

"It is a fact, authentic beyond all cavilling, that horses imbued with the most intelligence and qualities of endurance, are generally the most stubborn and implacable; hence, the inestimable value of some process by which they may be reduced to domestication and consequent utility. The plan pursued by Mr. Rarey and myself produces this result, and therefore its importance. No horse will submit to man unless convinced of his superiority. To obtain this supremacy in ordinary cases requires no skill, but where the animal is headstrong and obstinate the matter assumes a more formidable aspect, and defies the orthodox means by which success has been realized.

"The obdurate horse, then, must be vanquished in a trial of strength; he must be placed in such a position that all his efforts and struggles at resistance shall be skillfully encountered, and rendered futile. This accomplished, the horse becomes a slave, and only as such, is he useful. In this lies the whole secret of horse taming. It requires nothing but confidence, fearlessness, and patience, and perseverance in the operator to perform what appears to be almost miraculous. The time required to conquer the horse varies with the animal's disposition, from fifteen minutes to three hours, and in a few isolated cases, it is necessary to repeat the operation. In general it is quickly and noiselessly accomplished, but at times the struggle is severe and protracted, but

success invariably eventuates; during the period I have imparted instructions in horse training I have had several very vicious animals subjected to my treatment, which I have in no instance failed to conquer."

5.—THE SORGHO OR CANE SUGAR AGAIN.

On several occasions attention has been called through the pages of the Review to the great deception being practiced on the country by virtue of representations in regard to the Sorgho or Cane Sugar, which were not only not sustained by the facts, but were in direct opposition to them. We asserted that, as a sugar or syrup producer, it was of little or no value.

Having just laid our hands upon the New England Farmer, we find the editor endorsing an account of a most disastrous failure of the Sorgho experiment in these words:

"We yielded a good deal of space last year for a fair discussion of the merits of the Chinese sugar cane, advised our friends to try it in a small way, and have more recently given many accounts of results in various quarters, and the conclusion we have come to is this: When molasses is seventy-five cents a gallon in the winter or early spring, [that is, every ten years or so—Ed. Review] and the prospect is strong that it will remain so, it will be wise for those who have light, early land, to cultivate the cane."

The account which the editor endorses is given very humorously. The party had seventy gallon of juice from two hundred and thirty-four hills of cane, and agreed with a neighbor deacon to work it up for half. The account proceeds—

"We had seventy gallons of juice, but from these seventy gallons we obtained but seven gallons of syrup. There came a sudden early frost, which injured the cane so that we thought it would not yield so much saccharine matter.

"Now the deacon had to strip the leaves from all the stalks before they could be crushed, and the frost had made them adhere closer, and increased the labor. Then there was the expense of transportation to and from the mill, all of which brought up our three gallons and a half of syrup to quite a respectable price. At last it was completed, and the deacon tasted, we tasted, the children tasted, and one looked at the other, then we tasted again, then a silence. I wanted to say it was good, but I couldn't tell a lie. The deacon finally said he liked it, and he thought the more one ate of it, the better they would like it. We tried the experiment, and kept a tumbler of it near us through the day, and occasionally tasted, as we have seen old women do with herb tea, but our palates were inexorable; we could not like it, and finally we told the deacon if he would take the whole for the labor of preparing the stalks and the expense of transporting them to the mill, we would conclude the bargain. He assented, and we thought he had the hardest share, if he was to eat the syrup. So you see, Mr. Editor, we furnished land, seed, and manure—and learned wisdom. I ought to add that our Indian corn was good, and ripened very well, notwithstanding the wetness of the season. The potatoes were very fine, mealy, and delicious, with no symptoms of disease. These good old friends were true to us, and if I farm it again I shall cultivate their acquaintance more closely."

6.—AGRICULTURAL WEALTH OF OHIO.

THE Commissioner of Statistics of Ohio has recently made a report in regard to the agriculture of the State, from which the following digest has been made. It will interest our readers:

1. Of WHEAT.—The following is the crop of wheat raised in Ohio for eight successive years:

In 1849.....	14,487,351	bushels.
1850.....	31,408,000	"
1851.....	25,309,225	"
1852.....	22,962,774	"
1853.....	17,118,311	"
1854.....	11,819,110	"
1855.....	19,569,320	"
1856.....	15,353,837	"

This gives most remarkable variations. The crop of 1849 was not half that of 1850; and that of 1850 was nearly treble that of 1854! The variations in the production, *per acre*, are about in the same ratio as that of the general aggregate.

In 1850, per acre.....	17 bushels.
1851, "	15 "
1854, "	8 "

The average of eight years' production per acre, is fourteen bushels; and this may fairly be assumed as the general average of wheat production in Ohio. Since 1854, the wheat crop of Ohio has recovered. In fact, the price of wheat got to be so high in 1856 and 1857, that farmers could afford to raise, even at a small rate of production. There is no probability, however, that Ohio will soon obtain again the great production of 1850, or that the United States will even raise any very great surplus.

Wheat, as a grain, does not seem native to this country; but corn, oats, and rice, and potatoes, all are, and, therefore, (if this be so,) it is not surprising that the native plants should excel in strength of growth. The wheat has three great enemies, besides drouth, etc. It has the winter freezing, the summer sun, and the weevil, all to contend with; and each of these has frequently killed the whole crop in certain localities.

As the production is variable so is the price. In the last three years, the price of flour at Cincinnati has varied from \$3 70 to \$8 per barrel. In a length of time the average price of flour has been \$5 per barrel, which is about equivalent to \$1 per bushel for wheat. At that price, and an average production, wheat is a productive crop. Thus: an acre, fourteen bushels, at \$1 per bushel, \$14; cost of cultivating, \$5; seed, \$1—net profit, \$8.

This counting interest at eight per cent, should make a well improved wheat field worth \$100 per acre. But we suppose the best wheat field of Ohio may be bought for half that.

2. OF THE CORN CROP.—Corn is the real staple of the Ohio valley, and its production increases much more rapidly than even that of population. The following are the statistics of the corn crop of the last eight years:

In 1849.....	59,078,695 bushels.
1850.....	56,619,608 "
1851.....	61,171,282 "
1852.....	58,165,517 "
1853.....	78,436,000 "
1854.....	52,171,551 "
1855.....	87,587,434 "
1856.....	57,802,515 "

Here we see the crop has uniformly been less in alternate years, the even years being bad crops; but, on the other hand, the aggregate of each two years has increased at a very uniform rate.

Term of 1849 and 1850.....	115,700,000 bushels.
Term of 1851 and 1852.....	119,300,000 "
Term of 1853 and 1854.....	125,600,000 "
Term of 1855 and 1856.....	145,600,000 "

Looking to the uniformity of these results, but that the last aggregate was rather large, in proportion, than in 1853-'54, we doubt whether the aggregate of 1857-'58 will be as great an increase. Indeed, if it shall come up to that of 1855-'56, we shall be surprised. The average of these crops is about 64,000,000 bushels, which may be regarded as a fair average for Ohio.

The average per acre of the corn crop is thirty-five bushels. There are counties which have raised sixty bushels to an acre, and farms which have averaged an hundred, but these are in remarkably good seasons and districts. They are not common cases. On the whole, the corn crop is a very profitable one, and will long remain the great staple of the Ohio valley.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—OUR INLAND COMMERCE.

THE Hon. Mr. Hatch, of New York, lately treated of this subject in a speech before Congress. He says:

For the extent of the inland commerce, I refer to the official report.

Andrews, in his Colonial Lake Trade, 1852, says—page 40:

"The whole traffic of these great waters may be now unhesitatingly stated at \$326,000,000, employing seventy-four thousand tons of steam and one hundred and thirty-eight thousand tons of sail, for the year 1851. Whereas, previous to 1800, there was scarcely a craft above the size of an Indian canoe to stand against an aggregate marine, built up within half a century, in what was then almost a pathless wilderness, of two hundred and fifteen thousand tons burden."

In 1856, you will find in a report of the Committee on Commerce to the House (No. 316, page 9, vol. 3) an elaborate statement of the tonnage, imports, and exports of each of the lake districts, as follows:

Commerce of the lakes—exclusive of freight and passenger trade.

	Tonnage entered and cleared.	Value of imports and exports.
Buffalo district.....	3,330,232	\$308,023,000
Cuyahoga district.....	1,782,493	162,185,640
Sandusky.....	59,966,000
Maumee.....	1,034,644	94,107,000
Chicago.....	2,062,000	233,878,000
Detroit.....	1,588,000	140,000,000
Milwaukee.....	35,000,000
Oswego.....	1,607,000	146,325,000
Double exports and imports..... 2)	1,174,394,650
Other ports on Lake Ontario omitted.....		587,197,320
		42,226,000
Total value of commerce of the lakes, exclusive of Prusque Isle and Michilimackinac.....		629,423,320

I will also add from Graham's official report to the Senate—page 401:

"The States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin, and the Territory of Minnesota, have their shores washed by the great inland seas, whose intercommunication, by ship navigation, is much interrupted by the want of a safe and sure channel over these flats.

"The States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and a portion of Michigan, on the one side, are crippled in their important commercial relations with the remaining portion of the State of Michigan, and with the States of Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin, and the Territory of Minnesota, on the other side, by this intervening obstacle. Something would seem, then, under the purview of the Constitution, to be necessary to be done, in order to regulate the commerce between these States. Viewed in this light, the subject becomes one of great public concern.

"The value of the articles of commerce and navigation which passed over these flats during the two hundred and thirty days of open navigation, in the year 1855—say between the middle of April and the 1st of December—will be presently shown to have amounted to the immense sum of \$259,721,455 50; that is to say, \$250,721,455 50; or, per day, during the navigable season, \$1,129,223 72. The improvement, then, when undertaken, should be executed with a degree of permanency and celerity combined, commensurate with its importance and the magnitude of the interests involved."

Those who wish to make the comparison between the inland and foreign commerce will find that the former always largely exceeds the latter whenever a healthy prosperity exists among the people, and the balance of trade with foreign countries preserved.

2.—CHARLESTON AND HER STEAM MARINE.

The Charleston Courier, which is certainly the first commercial paper in the Southern country, as it is one of the oldest and most useful sheets, thus condenses some facts in regard to the growing commercial marine of that ancient emporium :

It will not prove a very difficult matter, we think, to conjecture what the good people of our city would have thought or said, had they been told considerably less than a half century ago, that at this day the proud waters of our capacious harbor would bear on their bosom no less than some two dozen large and minor class steamers. Such, however, is nevertheless a fact; art and science, energy, intelligence, and commerce combined, the five most powerful levers to advancement and progress, have accomplished it. Of the most prominent of this steam marine we will notice the *Isabel*, with William Rollins, her veteran, gentlemanly, and efficient commander. She is a first class semi-monthly, for the conveyance of passengers and freight between this port and Havana and Key West, leaving this port on the fourth and nineteenth, and Havana via Key West, on her return, on the tenth and twenty-fifth of each month. Mordecai & Co., 110 East Bay, are the agents of this fine steamer. In connection with the *Isabel* we have the large class reserve steamer *Catarba*, Capt. Hawes, always ready and willing to meet any emergency in which her effective aid may be needed. Mordecai & Co., are also her agents.

Then, and in the following order, we will proceed with our list by noticing the New York and Charleston line (semi-weekly) for the conveyance of passengers and freight, Henry Misroon & Co., corner of East and Bay, and Adger's, South Wharves, agents. The steamers of this line, each having gentlemanly, able, and popular commanders, now consist of the *Columbia*, with her pioneer Captain, (M. Berry;) the *Nashville*, Capt. Murray; the *James Adger*, Capt. Andrews, and the *Marion*, Capt. Foster; the two latter of which have been laid up for a short time to refit.

The *Keystone State*, side-wheel, with her noble specimen of a sailor and gentleman, Capt. Marshman, for passengers and freight, a first class vessel, leaves this port every alternate Saturday, for Philadelphia. Her agents are T. S. & T. G. Budd, 76 East Bay.

Cromwell's (propeller) Line, with its attentive and faithful officers, for passengers and freight, and plying between this port and Baltimore and New York, consists of the *Memphis*, Captain Watson; the *Atlanta*, Captain Layfield; the *Westernport*, Captain P. S. Berry; and the *Thos. Swann*, Captain Ramsay. John W. Caldwell, corner of East Bay, and Boyce & Co., South Wharf, are the agents of this line.

The *Everglade*, for passengers and freight, is a Florida packet, and leaves this port every Tuesday morning. Her deservedly popular commander is L. M. Coxetter, and her agent Geo. S. Roux, Brown & Co.'s Wharf.

The *St. Mary's*, Captain Freeborn, a faithful son of old Neptune, another Florida passenger and freight packet, leaves this port every Sunday morning. R. Q. Pineckney, Jr., North Commercial Wharf, is her agent. We have noticed, however, that, within a few days, the *St. Mary's* has been withdrawn for repairs.

The *Carolina*, with her true old salt, Captain Surtis, being a first class steamer, leaves this port for Florida direct every Tuesday afternoon. H. L. Chisolm, 6 Southern Wharf, is her agent.

The *Gordon*, Capt. Barden, her active commander, for Savannah, a fine steamer, leaves every Monday and Friday evening. E. Lafitte & Co., Savannah Steam Packet Wharf, are her agents.

The *Cecile*, Capt. Peck, so favorably known, for Beaufort, Boyd's Landing, Port Royal Ferry, Hilton Head, and Savannah, leaves every Thursday night. E. Lafitte & Co., are also her agents.

The Georgetown line, with its faithful officers and attendants, consists of the steamer *Nina*, Capt. Davis, and the *Charleston*, Capt. Grantham. This line is semi-weekly, and its agents are J. & S. P. Ravenel.

The *Edisto*, with her old favorite, Capt. Sassard, for Edisto and St. Helena, leaves this port weekly.

The *Oeiris*, Capt. Mansfield, a true type of a gentleman and sailor, Island packet, plies regularly.

The *Gen. Clinch*, Capt. Chapman, a jolly good tar, is always open to orders. Our list, however, has already become so extended, that we feel compelled to pass over a notice of steamers of a smaller class to those mentioned above.

A considerable coastwise trade, now existing and increasing between this port and Boston, has already induced the belief that the establishment of a steam line between the two ports will, at some early time, become necessary. We go still further, and hope, indeed, that at no very distant day, we may be able even to boast of the successful establishment of a European line.

3.—SEA RATES OF INSURANCE.

THE New Orleans Prices Current, takes the following notice of that portion of Mr. Carey's letters to President Buchanan, which relates to the subject of sea risks and enhanced rates of insurance. Mr. Carey alludes to the increased hazards of insurance, and to the diminished security in our commercial marine. He makes the following statement of the rates of insurance now, as compared with 1846-7, viz:

From Atlantic Ports.	1846.	1858.
To Cuba.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 per cent.	
To Liverpool.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ "	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 "
To India and China	$1\frac{1}{2}$ "	$2\frac{1}{2}$ "
To and from Liverpool, annual rates on hulls.....	5 "	8 "

We think Mr. Carey has somewhat overstated the rates of the present year, if compared with the same classes of risks as those of 1846. But be this as it may, the subject is one deserving of scrutiny, and our underwriters, having a due knowledge of the increased hazards, will apply their remedy in the shape of increased premiums, while our ship-owners should scrutinize the grounds of such marked differences. One of the leading members of the Geographical and Statistical Society of New York has had this subject for some months under investigation, and we presume the result of his inquiries will soon be made known. According to some of our Wall street underwriters, the actual increase in similar classes of cargo risks at this time, compared with 1846-7, is from 20 to 33 per cent. Cotton is taken now at $\frac{1}{2}$ to Liverpool, against $1\frac{1}{2}$ ten years ago; but other bulky articles are charged $1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2 per cent, while hull risks have increased to 8 or 10 per cent. If we look into the causes of these changes, in view of more extended science and general information, it will appear that the insurance offices consider the hazards of loss by collision as fully double what they were in 1846-7. There are many cases of collision known and recorded, and there, no doubt, have been many that never will be known. In cases of collision it frequently happens that one vessel survives the accident, while in others both are carried down, and none left to tell the story.

2. A second and a very prolific source of loss is the increased burden of our ships compared with 1846-7, unaccompanied by commensurate strength. Our ships of 1,800 and 2,000 tons of the present day are not relatively as strong as the large ships of 1840-48, measuring 800 and 1,200 tons. Hence the lamentable and extensive losses by cargoes of grain shipped in bulk, and by railroad iron shipped from ports where nothing else formed a part of the cargo.

3. Our ships are not as well manned as in 1846-8. Our ordinary seamen at this day are neither so experienced nor so reliable. Many are shipped as seamen who are nothing but landsmen, and incapable of duty. They are frequently shipped in a state of intoxication, and unfit for service.

4. There is not due caution observed by ships in approaching the coast. The lead is not used as freely as a due regard for the safety of vessel and cargo should ensure.

Another cause, but temporary only, is that property in ships has of late become less profitable, and the insurance value often exceeds the market value. Under such circumstances it is not surprising that vessels are occasionally lost because a profit could be made on the policy. These are all points that eminently claim the consideration of our Chamber of Commerce, so that the true remedy may be applied at as early a day as practicable. Our underwriters, merchants, shippers, and ship captains and owners, have a community of interest in this subject.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—CANALS IN THE UNITED STATES.

We extract the following table from a late number of the American Railroad Journal. It is the only similar table in existence:

COMPILED BY RICHARD SWANSON FISHER, ESQ.

Canals.	Termini.	Miles.
MAINE.		
Cumberland and Oxford.....	Portland, Sebago Pond.....	20.50
Songo River Improvement.....	Lock in Songo River.....	30.00
		50.50
NEW HAMPSHIRE.		
Bow Falls.....		0.75
Hookset Falls.....		0.13
Amoskeag Falls.....	Around Falls in Merrimac River...	1.00
Sewell's Falls.....		0.25
Middlesex.....	See Massachusetts.	
		2.13
VERMONT.		
White River Falls.....		0.50
Bellows Falls.....	Around Falls in Connecticut River.	0.16
Waterqueechy.....		0.40
		1.06
MASSACHUSETTS.		
Middlesex.....	Probably disused.....	27.00
Pawtucket.....	Around Falls.....	1.60
Blackstone.....	Probably disused.....	45.00
Montague Falls.....	Around Falls in Connecticut River	3.00
South Hadley.....		2.00
		78.60
RHODE ISLAND.		
Blackstone.....	See Massachusetts.	
CONNECTICUT.		
Enfield Falls.....	Around Falls in Connecticut River..	5.50
NEW YORK.		
Erie, Eastern Division.....	Albany, Oneida Lake.....	133.58
Albany Basin.....	Albany.....	0.77
Champlain, Glenn Falls Feeder...	Watertown, Whitehall.....	78.00
Black River Feeder Improvement..	Utica to Navigable Black.....	95.00

Canals.	Terminal.	Miles.
Erie, Middle Division	Oneida Lake, E. line, Wayne County	73.00
Chenango	Utica, Binghampton	97.01
Oneida Lake	Oneida Lake, Main l.	6.00
Oswego	Syracuse, Oswego	38.00
Baldwinsville Side Cut	Baldwinsville, Oswego Canal	0.75
Oneida River Improvement		20.00
Seneca River Towing Path		5.25
Cayuga and Seneca	Montezuma, Geneva	23.00
Crooked Lake		8.00
Chemung	Seneca L., Elmira	23.00
Feeder	Corning, Fairport	16.00
Cayuga Inlet		2.00
Erie, Western Division	E. line, Wayne County, Buffalo	155.00
Genesee Valley	Rochester, Olean	106.00
Danville Side Cut	Danville, Shakers	12.00
Delaware and Hudson	See Pennsylvania	108.00
Junction	Elmira, State line, Pennsylvania	
Croton Aqueduct	Croton Lake, New York city	40.00

1,309.86

NEW JERSEY.

Delaware and Raritan	Trenton, New Brunswick	43.00
Morris	Jersey city, Easton	101.70
Salem	Salem, Delaware River	4.00

148.70

PENNSYLVANIA.

Main Line, Eastern Division	Columbia, Hollidaysburg	173.00
Do. Western Division	Johnston, Pittsburg	103.00
Susquehanna Division	Juniata Junction, Northumberland	41.00
West Branch	Northumberland, Farrandsville	76.00
Lower North Branch	Northumberland, Pittston	73.00
Upper do	Pittston, State L., New York	94.00
Delaware Division	Bristol, Easton	60.00
Schuylkill Navigation	Philadelphia, Port Carbon	1.08
Lehigh do	Easton, Stoddartsburg	84.00
Union	Reading, Middletown	77.00
Branch	Junction, Pine Grove	22.00
Susquehanna and Tide Water, 13 miles in Maryland	Columbia, Havre de Grace, Maryland	45.00
Wiseonisco	Clark's Ferry, Millersburg	13.00
Beaver and Erie	Beaver, Erie City	136.00
French Creek Feeder	Meadville, Evansburg	21.00
Pennsylvania and Ohio Cross Cut, 63 miles in Ohio	Newcastle, Akron, Ohio	78.00
Monongahela Navigation	Pittsburg, 10 m. N. Virginia line	84.00
Bald Eagle and Spring Creek Navigation	Bellefonte, Lockhaven	25.00
Conestoga Navigation	Lancaster, Safe Harbor	18.00
Youghiogeny Navigation	McKeesport, West Newton	18.00

1,349.00

DELAWARE.		
Chesapeake and Delaware, 4 miles in Maryland	Delaware City, Chesapeake City	13.50

MARYLAND.

Chesapeake and Ohio, 3 miles in the District of Columbia	Georgetown, D. C., Cumberland	191.00
Chesapeake and Delaware	See Delaware.	
Susquehanna and Tide Water	See Pennsylvania.	

Canals.	Termini.	Miles.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.		
Chesapeake and Ohio	See Maryland.	
VIRGINIA.		
Alexandria	Alexandria Aqueduct.....	7.20
James River and Kanawha	Richmond, Buchanan.....	147.78
Dismal Swamp	Norfolk, Elizabeth City, N. Carolina.	23.00
do. Branches	Several.....	11.00
		<hr/>
		188.98
NORTH CAROLINA.		
Weldon	Roanoke R. Improvement.....	12.00
Club Foot and Harlow	Beaufort, Neuse River.	1.50
Dismal Swamp and Branches	See Virginia.	
		<hr/>
		13.50
SOUTH CAROLINA.		
Santee	Cooper River, Santee River.....	22.00
Winyaw	River Improvements.....	7.50
Saluda	do.....	6.20
Drehr's	do.....	1.30
Lorick	do.....	1.00
Lockhart's	do.....	2.70
Wateree	do.....	4.00
Catawba	do.....	7.80
		<hr/>
		52.50
GEORGIA.		
Savannah and Ogeechee	Savannah, Ogeechee River.....	16.00
Brunswick	Brunswick, Altamaha River.....	12.00
		<hr/>
		28.00
ALABAMA.		
Muscle Shoal	In Tennessee River.....	35.70
Huntsville	Huntsville, Tennessee River.....	16.00
		<hr/>
		51.70
LOUISIANA.		
Orleans Bank	New Orleans.....	4.25
Carondelet	do.....	4.00
Barataria	New Orleans, Lake Cataouache.....	8.50
Lake Veret	New Orleans.....	8.00
		<hr/>
		24.75
KENTUCKY.		
Louisville and Portland	Louisville, Portland.....	2.50
Kentucky River Improvement	River Improvements.....	100.00
Licking River	do.....	94.00
Green River	do.....	190.00
Barren River	do.....	100.00
		<hr/>
		486.50
ILLINOIS.		
Illinois and Michigan	Chicago, Peru.....	102.00
WISCONSIN.		
Fox and Wisconsin Portage	Across Portage.....	2.00
MICHIGAN.		
Sault St. Marie	Left Bank of St. Marie River.....	0.75

Canals.	Termini.	Miles.
INDIANA.		
Wabash and Erie, 90 m. in Ohio...	Evansville, Toledo, Ohio.....	469.00
Whitewater, 7 or 8 m. in Ohio....	Lawrenceburg, Hagerstown.....	74.00
		543.00
OHIO.		
Ohio and Erie.....	Portsmouth, Cleveland	307.00
Zanesville Branch.....	Junetion, Zanesville.....	14.00
Columbus Branch.....	Junetion, Columbus.....	10.00
Lancaster Branch.....	Junetion, Lancaster.....	9.00
Hocking Valley.....	Lancaster, Athens.....	56.00
Walhonding Branch.....	Coshocton, up W. Valley.....	25.00
Eastport Branch.....	Junetion, Eastport	4.00
Dresden Branch.....	Junetion, Dresden.....	2.00
Miami and Erie.....	Cincinnati, Wabash Junction.....	178.00
Muskingum Improvement.....	Zanesville, Marietta.....	91.00
Sandy and Beaver.....	Bolivar, Liverpool.....	86.00
Canton Branch.....	Junetion, Canton.....	14.00
Pennsylvania and Ohio Cross Cut.	See Pennsylvania.	
Wabash and Erie.....	See Indiana.	
Whitewater.....	See Indiana.	
		796.00
Total.....		5,131.53

2.—THE WAGON ROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

LIEUTENANT BEALE'S REPORT TO THE SECRETARY OF WAR.

WASHINGTON, April 26, 1858.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith my daily journal of the survey made last summer and winter of a wagon road from Fort Defiance to the Colorado river, or State line of California, near the 35th parallel. With this journal I send also an itinerary from Albuquerque, in New Mexico, to California. This itinerary gives distances as they exist, no air lines or imaginary curves, but every turn of our wheels recorded by the odometer attached. It is proper that I should call your attention to this fact, that to go by Fort Defiance and thence to Zuni, our starting point, is an unnecessary loss of time, and a very great increase of distance to no purpose. Complying with my instructions, I proceeded to Fort Defiance, and thence to Zuni, but my train I sent by the direct road from the Gallo river to Zuni, saving not less than sixty miles. Accompanying my journal is a table showing the thermometer at its highest elevation and lowest depression during the day, and always exposed to the sun on our outward journey in the months of September and October, and another kept on my return in January and February, for the same purpose. A comparison of those two establish the interesting fact that one may travel the road in winter or summer without suffering the extremes of heat or cold. The journal which I send you is a faithful history of each day's work, written at the camp-fire at the close of every day. I have not altered or changed it in any respect whatever, as I desired to speak of the country as it impressed me on the spot, so as to be as faithful in my description as possible. You will therefore find it very rough, but I hope those who may follow in my footsteps over the road may find it correct in every particular. I have written it for the use of emigrants more than for show, and if it answers the purpose of assisting them I shall be well satisfied. I have described things as I found them in the seasons in which I passed. More or less water in the summer, more or less snow in the winter, may be found by those who follow me; I am not responsible for the seasons, but I am for all my statements in relation to the country over which we passed. As far as the San Francisco mountain, the road needs scarcely any other improvement than a few bridges. In one place alone, a bridge at the Cañon Diabolo would save twenty-

five or thirty-five miles of travel; and on the whole road its length might be shortened by subsequent explorations and straightening elbows, one hundred miles. As this will inevitably become the great emigrant road to California, as well as that by which all stock from New Mexico will reach that place, it is proper that the Government should put it in such a condition as to relieve the emigrant and stock-driver of as many of the hardships incident to their business as possible. For this purpose I would recommend that water dams be constructed at short intervals over the entire road. With these and a few bridges and military posts, I do not doubt that the whole emigration to the Pacific coast would pursue this one line, instead of being divided and scattered over half a dozen different routes. The advantage to the traveler, and the economy to the Government, of having one line instead of a dozen to protect, would fully repay all the expenses attending the construction of the road. I presume there can be no further question as to the practicability of the country near the 35th parallel for a wagon road, since Aubrey, Whipple, and myself have all traveled it successfully with wagons, neither of us on precisely the same line, and yet through very much the same country.

You will find by my journal that we encamped sometimes without wood and sometimes without water, but never without abundant grass. Starting with a drove of three hundred and fifty sheep, that number was increased by births upon the road, but not one was lost during the journey. In our first journey we groped as it were in the dark, and the weather being warm, did not care to leave the valleys for the wood, which is generally found on the hill-sides: and it is particularly worthy of note that all the waters discovered were directly on the line of the road, and found almost without search, and at short distances apart. It is not to be questioned that if so much was discovered on the first journey, a great deal more remains to be found upon a little exploration. In preference to Artesian wells, I propose to supply a deficiency of water by a system of dams across ravines and cañons, such as are used in Mexico, abundant evidences existing throughout the country that rains fall in sufficient quantities during the year to keep them full. In Mexico dams of this kind are used in the irrigation of large tracts of territory, which are dependent entirely upon this means for the supply of that element and for their crops. I cannot too urgently call your attention to this method of procuring abundant supplies of water, not only on the road to California, but on other emigrant routes where water may be scarce. It has the advantage over the other artificial means of obtaining water, of returning a certainty for the expenditure of money, and of answering every purpose to be expected of wells of any kind, to say nothing of it being far more economical.

In the journey of the year, during which I have been engaged upon this work, I have not lost a man, nor was there the slightest case of sickness in camp. The medicine chest proved only an encumbrance. My surgeon having left me at the commencement of the journey, I did not employ, nor did I have need of one on the entire road. Even in mid-winter, and on the most elevated portions of the road, not a tent was spread, the abundant fuel rendering them unnecessary for warmth and comfort.

I regard the establishment of a military post on the Colorado river as an indispensable necessity for the emigrant over the road; for although the Indians living on the richer meadow lands are agriculturists, and consequently peaceful, they are very numerous—so much so that we counted eight hundred men around our camp on the second day after our arrival on the banks of the river. The temptation of scattered emigrant parties with their families, and the confusion of inexperienced teams rafting so wide and rapid a river with their wagons and families, would offer too strong a temptation for the Indians to withstand.

To complete this road in a manner worthy of the Government, and looking to it as the single line of emigration to our Pacific possessions, uninterrupted by the snows of winter or heats of summer, would require an appropriation such as would make it a matter of security and convenience to be preferred by the richer class of emigrants to that of the Isthmus of Panama, for its comforts, safety, and pleasures; and by the poorer as the more economical means of

transit, with his flocks and herds, to the Pacific; but such a sum, at this time, I do not feel justified in asking. With such an appropriation, and military post at every seventy-five miles—around which thrifty settlements would soon grow up—this could be accomplished; and as the road, for the most part, lies through a country very beautiful, and well adapted to agriculture and grazing, these posts might be abandoned as the settlements, of which they would form the nucleus, would gain strength to protect themselves.

Another appropriation of \$100,000, to build bridges, to cut off elbows, and to straighten the road from point to point, and make other improvements on the road, would, I think, make it one of the best routes for transit across the continent. I feel assured that the public lands which would be brought into the market and sold within three years after the opening of this road, will repay fourfold the appropriation asked.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
ED. H. BEALE, *Superintendent.*

HOR. JOHN B. FLOYD, *Secretary of War.*

ITINERARY.

Camps.	Viameter dist. in miles from			Remarks.
	Last Camp.	Albuquerque.		
Albuquerque.....	—	—	—	Wood, water, grass.
Atusco.....	2.10....	2.10....	do....do....do	
Rio Puerco.....	20.63....	22.73....	Water in pools, wood, grass.	
Near Rita.....	19.41....	42.14....	Abundance of wood, water, grass.	
Covero.....	18.12....	55.26....	Water and grass abundant; wood scarce.	
Hay Camp.....	13.06....	68.32....	Wood, water, and grass plenty.	
Aqua Trio.....	25.37....	98.69....	do....do.....do	
Pioscription Rock.....	16.28....	109.97....	Small spring; grass, wood plenty.	
Ojo del Percudo.....	16.32....	126.29....	Water, grass, plenty of wood for camp use.	
Zuni.....	13.18....	141.42....	Wood scarce, grass and water abundant.	
Indian Well.....	6.19....	147.61....	Wood, water, grass.	
No. 1.....	14.43....	162.04....	Wood and grass; no water.	
Jacob's Well.....	11.93....	173.97....	Water, grass, wood for camp.	
No. 2, Navajo Spring.....	6.57....	180.54....	do.....do.....do	
Noon Halt.....	13.62....	194.16....	Water by digging; grass and wood scarce.	
No. 3.....	6.18....	200.29....	Grass abundant.	
Noon Halt.....	7.75....	208.04....	Wood, water, and grass abundant.	
No. 4.....	7.25....	215.29....	Water in holes, grass abundant, and fuel sufficient.	
Three Lakes.....	3.60....	118.89....	Water, grass abundant, and fuel sufficient.	
Crossing Puerco.....	1.75....	220.64....	Wood, water, and grass abundant.	
No. 5.....	11.25....	231.89....	do.....do.....do	
No. 6.....	18.50....	250.39....	do.....do.....do	
No. 7.....	10.17....	260.56....	do.....do.....do	
No. 8.....	13.25....	273.81....	do.....do.....do	
Cafion Diabolo.....	19.35....	293.16....	do.....do.....do	
No. 10.....	14.75....	307.01....	do.....do.....do	
Near Casmino Caves.....	13.50....	321.41....	do.....do.....do	
Near S. Francisco Spring.....	17.32....	338.73....	do.....do.....do	
Leroux Spring.....	9.06....	347.79....	do.....do.....do	
No. 13.....	8.48....	356.27....	Wood and grass; no water.	
Breckenridge Spring.....	11.13....	367.40....	Wood, water, and grass abundant.	
No. 14.....	8.07....	375.47....	do.....do.....do	
Cedar Spring.....	6.50....	381.97....	do.....do.....do	
No. 15.....	10.50....	392.47....	do.....do.....do	
Almanden Cafion.....	19.75....	412.22....	Wood and grass abundant; not much water.	

Camp.	Viameter dist. in miles from		Remarks.
	Last Camp.	Albuquerque.	
Smith's Spring.....	8.05	420.27	Wood, water, and grass abundant.
Pass Dornen.....	8.75	429.02	Wood and grass abundant; no water.
No. 19	13.50	442.52	do.....do.....do.
No. 20	16.35	468.87	Water two miles from camp, wood and grass abundant.
Hempbell's Spring.....	4.06	—	Wood, water, and grass abundant.
No. 21	21.25	480.12	do.....do.....do.
No. 22	9.75	489.87	Wood and grass abundant; spring one mile distant.
No. 23	5.50	495.37	do.....do; no water.
No. 24	8.45	503.82	Wood, grass; spring three miles distant.
No. 25	16.75	520.27	Wood, grass; no water.
Sabadas Spring.....	7.25	527.82	Wood, water, and grass.
No. 26	13.25	541.07	Wood; no water or grass.
Spring.....	8.75	549.82	Wood, water, and grass.
No. 27	1.25	551.07	do.....do.....do.
No. 28	3.17	554.24	do.....do.....do.
No. 29	1.25	555.49	do.....do.....do.
No. 30	3.21	558.60	do.....do.....do.
E. Bank, No. 31.....	3.25	561.85	Colorado river; wood.
W. Bank, No. 32.....	—	—	Water and grass abundant.

3.—NEW ORLEANS AND OPELOUSAS RAILROAD.

The following report, made several months since by the President of the Ope- lousas Railroad Company, gives some interesting particulars relating to the progress and prosperity of that work:

"Agreeably to your request, I have now the honor to present you a statement, showing briefly the condition, progress, and anticipated results of this road, given in general terms, and the figures in round numbers, without aiming at exactness. If any more minute or extended information be desired, I will furnish it with pleasure, or would be happy to afford you the opportunity for a personal examination.

The condition of affairs is somewhat thus:

The authorized capital is \$6,000,000, and the subscription as follows:

State, in bonds.....	\$1,200,000
City, in bonds.....	1,500,000
Parishes and individual subscriptions, and city tax... .	1,530,000
 Total subscription.....	\$4,230,000
Unsubscribed	1,770,000
 \$6,000,000	
Of the subscribed stock there is yet unpaid—State, which issues bonds only in proportion to other pay- ments.....	\$593,000
City, uncollected taxes, &c.....	65,000
Parishes and individuals.....	490,000
Difference between par value of City bonds and the amount borrowed on them, about.....	284,000
 Total subscriptions as above.....	\$1,430,000
 Leaves, as actually realized.....	4,230,000
Less than one-half of the authorized capital.	\$2,800,000

The sum borrowed on pledge of the City bonds, constituted the whole debt of the Company at the date of the last annual report, with the exception of about \$30,000 on mortgage, and some ten or twelve thousand dollars in current debts. An increased business has, however, compelled us to provide increased means of transportation. These, with the settlement of an old claim of some \$80,000, have added considerably to our debt. We hope, however, to clear off the whole of this, during the current year, from collections of balances due, and our increased receipts.

PROGRESS.—The road from Algiers to the Texas line is two hundred and fifty-seven miles in length. It is completed to Berwick's Bay, eighty miles, and is there connected with Texas by a line of steamships, running regularly semi-weekly, and an additional ship to be put on in November. The earnings of the completed section were unfavorably affected by the short sugar crop of the past season, but the summer's business shows a large increase.

The receipt for passengers and freight in June, July, and August of 1856, amounted to.....	\$38,515 87
And in same months, in 1857 to.....	62,213 27

Difference	\$23,218 40
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or sixty-two and a half per cent. The increase on freight, separately, was eighty per cent. The whole receipts for the year 1856, amounted to \$206,000. Notwithstanding the drawback referred to, they may reach \$275,000 at the close of the present year, and we think \$400,000 a perfectly reliable estimate for 1858.

The road is now in running order to Berwick's Bay, but considerable outlays are yet necessary to place it in perfect condition, and erect some warehouses at the Bay. Our total receipts are exhausted in the construction of the eighty miles of the road to the Bay, including bridges, depots, &c., &c.

PROSPECTS.—We have now to cross Berwick's Bay, and continue the construction to the Sabine, one hundred and seventy-seven miles. The Chief Engineer, after careful calculation, estimates the entire cost, including the Bay bridge, \$3,000,000, and for this construction our principal reliance is on the proceeds of the public lands, conditionally donated by Congress. These lands, and the funds to be raised for securing the donation, are now subjects of vast importance to the State and city.

The line of our road has been recently run out to the Sabine, and the report of the Chief Engineer is very favorable, both as regards the value of the lands, and the facility and cheapness of construction of the road through them.

We will be entitled to six sections per mile, equal on the whole line of two hundred and fifty-seven miles, to nine hundred and eighty-six thousand eight hundred and eighty acres. Making liberal allowance for entries, &c., we can, we think, calculate on seven hundred and fifty thousand acres, amply sufficient, it is estimated, to build and equip the whole road from Berwick's Bay to the Sabine, including the cost of the Bay bridge."

4.—ROUTES OF NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN TRAVEL.

It has been lately announced that the Postmaster General has entered into contracts for the transportation of a mail to New Orleans, on a new route, to be effected in four days and seventeen hours; and, also, that a contract has been signed, with the Tehuantepec Company, for the carriage of the Pacific mails. These are important matters, for which that able officer deserves the thanks of this country, as he does of the West especially. He has also succeeded in regulating the great New Orleans and Cairo mail, always a source of much complaint.

The Wilmington Journal is unwilling, however, to concede the advantages which are claimed for the new route via Knoxville, and thus enters into an exhibit of facts and figures which is worthy of consideration. We do not adopt or reject the views of the Journal, but give them for information or criticism.

"The following figures are believed to be perfectly correct, the distances are official, and the only variation that can exist must be found in the number of

miles of staging, which we may have made a little less or a little more, but the error cannot exceed ten miles either way. It stands thus:

	Miles.
New Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern R. R., completed to Canton, Mississippi.....	206
Southern Division Miss. Central R. R., length now.....	28
Stage line from Goodman's Station, on same, to Water Valley, about.....	95
Northern Division Miss. Central, from Water Valley to Grand Junction, on Mem. and Charleston R. R.....	73
From Grand Junction to Chattanooga, via Mem. and Charleston and Nashville and Chat. R. R.'s.....	267
From Chattanooga to Dalton, via Western and Atlantic R. R.....	38
From Dalton to Knoxville, via E. Tenn. and Georgia R. R.....	110
From Knoxville to Bristol, via E. Tennessee and Virginia R. R.....	130
From Bristol to Lynchburg, via Virginia Tennessee R. R.....	204
From Lynchburg to Bucksville, via South Side R. R.....	71
From Bucksville to Richmond, via Richmond and Danville, R. R.....	53
From Richmond to Washington, via Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac R. R. and steamer.....	130
From Washington to Baltimore, via Baltimore and Ohio R. R.....	40
From Baltimore to Philadelphia.....	100
From Philadelphia to New York.....	100
	<hr/> 1,635

Well, now, this makes the trifling difference of *over three hundred miles*—a rather noticeable discrepancy, we think—between the actual *facts* and the flourishing assertions, and our figures cannot be disputed. We have looked also over the schedule of time, and find that it really comes to within an hour and a half of five days between New Orleans and New York.

Now let us compare the distances on this boasted short line with those on the present route, and, strange as it may seem, the present route is twenty-three miles the shortest, thus:

	Miles.
New Orleans to Mobile by steamer.....	160
Mobile to Montgomery by stage and steamer.....	200
Montgomery to West Point.....	87
West Point to Atlanta.....	88
Atlanta to Augusta.....	171
Augusta to Kingsville.....	117
Kingsville to Wilmington.....	171
Wilmington to Weldon.....	162
Weldon to Richmond.....	86
Richmond to Washington.....	130
Washington to New York.....	240
	<hr/> 1,612

This showing, from the actual official distances, will no doubt surprise a great many people who have swallowed without examination the report of the great saving in distance by the new route. Now, as to time, the old route is prepared, we believe, to submit a schedule by which mails and passengers can certainly be carried between New York and New Orleans in quite as short a time as that proposed by the new over-mountain line, if not indeed in shorter time. The mail now lies over seven hours at Montgomery, of which it is proposed to save at least six hours. An effort is also in progress, and is certain to succeed, by which six hours will be saved on the route between Atlanta and Richmond. This, added to six hours at Montgomery, would make a clear saving of twelve hours to the New Orleans mails and passengers.

It is proper to remark that the completion of the road now in course of construction from Charlottesville, Virginia, to Lynchburg, Virginia, will save some seventy miles; and the road from Cleveland on the East Tennessee and Virginia road over to Chattanooga, will save some forty more miles. Little or nothing

in distance can be saved over the ninety-five miles of staging in Mississippi by the Mississippi Central road. These various connections, which will lessen the distance on the interior route one hundred and ten miles, cannot be completed under two years.

On the other hand, a glance at the railroad map attached to Dinsmore's Railroad Guide for May, shows that connections are in progress calculated to effect a corresponding reduction of distance on the seaboard route between the great commercial capitals of the North and the South. Some fifty miles only are wanting to complete the Delaware road from Seaford, the point it has now reached, to Cherrystone, a point on the eastern shore nearly opposite Norfolk. The line from Weldon to New York, via Norfolk, Cherrystone, and Philadelphia, would be considerably shorter than the present by Richmond, Washington city, and Baltimore; and it would still be shorter if the air line already projected from Norfolk to New York, via Cape Henry and Cape Charles, crossing the Delaware bay at Cape May, was only pushed to completion.

We have compared the actual distances, and shown by the figures that the advantage claimed for the Western route has no existence in fact. Let us now turn to another route whose claims in point of time we have had occasion to present once before.

By railroad from New York to Wilmington or Charleston, thence by steamer to Fernandina, thence to Cedar Keys by Florida railroad, thence by steamer to New Orleans, will insure the transit of mails and passengers from New York to New Orleans, or New Orleans to New York, in or under four days. This, we understand, the companies will guaranty. No inland or other line through mountain gorges can hope for the same certainty in its winter connections; indeed, it may fairly be questioned whether the time proposed can be averaged by that line even in the summer.

By the way, we notice from some of our exchanges that a great mistake exists in regard to the great Northern and Southern mails of the country, the idea being entertained, or at least attempted to be conveyed, that these mails are hereafter to go by the route across the mountains of Virginia and Tennessee. This, we learn from good authority, is not the fact. It is true that a single daily mail is to be sent by the mountain route after the first day of July, but that does not imply a discontinuance of the mails along the great seaboard line. Indeed the importance of a double daily mail to all the important Atlantic cities and towns, to say nothing of the whole southern Atlantic tier of States, is too great to admit for a moment the idea of the removal of either of the mails from this line."

5.—ROUTE TO THE NORTH VIA COLUMBIA, S. C.

WE find in a recent issue of the South Carolinian the following letter dated the 1st inst., and written on board of one of the Chesapeake Bay steamers. It gives the impressions of a traveler, who has tried the new central route to the North via Columbia, Charlotte, and Raleigh, and we re-publish it for the benefit of those who contemplate a visit to the Northern States during the approaching summer:

"The new schedule on the Charlotte and North Carolina railroad by Raleigh, works admirably and successfully, and the traveling community begin to appreciate it. Just think of our leaving Columbia on Thursday evening, at seven o'clock, and taking supper on Friday evening, on board the fine Chesapeake steamer, on soft crabs and oysters. The trip from Columbia to Portsmouth, four hundred and sixty-one miles, is made in twenty-three hours, averaging twenty miles per hour, inclusive of all stoppages. No time is lost on the road, and you reach Weldon at the same time as the other train by Wilmington, which starts four hours sooner. Who wants to travel faster? You take breakfast at Haw river, and dine at Weldon, at friend Moody's, where you have a good dinner, and arrive at Portsmouth at five p. m., to take the steamer up the bay.

"The North Carolina Central road is the finest in the United States, and it is managed, as are the others on this line, with great care and efficiency. A great

relief to passengers in the new arrangement of a baggage master on the Raleigh and Gaston road, to change checks and save them any trouble about baggage, at the great confusion of Weldon, where so many roads meet.

"We have so often described the delightful trip on board the North Carolina or Louisiana, that it is scarcely admissible to repeat it, but we may say that in our idea it is the perfection of traveling, after a long and dusty ride; with stratum after stratum of dust and ashes covering you before your time to be reduced to them, almost fossilising you, it is delightful to get the comforts of these noble steamers, where you can enjoy free locomotion, delightful air, beautiful scenery, with the pleasure of good company, and a supper to satisfy the most capricious. You have river navigation and sea air, with the most entire satisfaction that any one can enjoy in traveling. We cannot too highly recommend the advantages of the Bay line over any route to the North. Railroads are essential for speed, but there are no comforts in them—here you really enjoy yourself, and are well repaid for your patronage. The steamers are admirably managed, and the politeness and courtesy of the officers most agreeable. The sight of the full moon rising on the calm, placid bay, was worth a day's travel to the sea, and the enjoyment of the evening was protracted to a late hour of the beautiful night.

"A TRAVELLER."

6.—RAILROADS IN TEXAS.

THE Houston Telegraph gives the following summary of the railroads in that State:

The present condition of the principal railroads in Texas is, as near as we can arrive at it, about as follows. The total length of grade as well as the amount of iron laid on the roads is embraced in the following statement:

	Miles graded.	Iron laid.
Houston and Texas Central.....	60	43
B. B. B. and Colorado.....	60	32
Houston, Tap.....	7	7
" and Brazoria.....	30	none.
Southern Pacific.....	25	20
S. A. and Mo. Gulf.....	25	5
G. H. and H.....	40	25
All others about.....	10	none.
Total.....	257	132

Of these eighty two miles of completed road, over which daily trains of cars are running, are connected with this city. On the Southern Pacific we believe the cars are now making daily trips, as well as on the five miles of the S. A. and M. G. The G. H. and H. road is not yet in operation. There are now in operation on these roads nine locomotives and a full complement of passenger and freight cars.

Within one year the amount of road graded has been one hundred and three miles, and the amount of iron laid sixty-nine miles. The actual cost of all the railroad work yet done in the State has been about two and a half millions of dollars, of which there has been expended in the last year about \$1,100,000. The probability is that the expenditure in the future will be above that of the last twelve months, and we may expect to see in March, 1859, fully seventy-five, and, perhaps, a hundred miles of road in operation more than we have now.

These railroads are already doing wonders for our State. They will yet make it the greatest country in the world. Who yet is backward in this great progressive movement of linking every part of Texas by iron bands to its great center? Who will ignore the great destiny which awaits us? Let us rejoice in the progress already made, and set to work with a new zeal to secure the object of the ambition of all of us.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—THE FACTORIES OF LOWELL.

In 1841 the number of operatives employed at Lowell was 9,717, and the wages paid them \$1,349,044; in 1852 the number of operatives had increased to over twelve thousand, and the wages to nearly \$2,600,000. In 1858—but we give the figures in detail:

	1858.	1852.
Capital.....	\$13,900,000	\$13,900,000
No. of mills.....	52	51
Spindles.....	396,064	342,722
Looms.....	12,085	9,909
Females employed.....	9,023	8,476
Males ".....	4,247	4,163
Cotton cloth made per week—yards.....	2,309,000	2,550,000
Woolen " " " ".....	30,000	27,000
Carpets.....	25,000	25,000
Rugs—No.....	50
Cotton consumed per week—lbs.....	810,000	810,000
Wool " " " ".....	91,000	100,000
Printed and dyed—yards.....	470,000	16,575,000
Coal used—tons.....	29,600	30,575
Charcoal—bush.....	25,150	65,350
Wood—cords.....	1,340	3,220
Oil—gals.....	61,617	69,677
Lard oil—gals.....	20,000	47,000
Starch—lbs.....	1,585,000	1,409,000
Flour—bbls.....	1,245	1,565
Average wages females per week.....	\$2 60	\$2 00
" " males " "	4 80	4 80
Average of a loom, 14 yarn—yards per day.....	45	45
" " 30 " " " "	33	33
" " spindle per day.....	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$

2.—CARPET FACTORIES.

We learn from the United States Economist, that great progress is making in the development and extension of this branch of industry. The inhabitants of this country, in proportion to its population, consume more carpets than those of any other. A well-carpeted room is felt to be a necessity. The list of carpet manufacturers include:—The Lowell Co., the Hartford Carpet Co., the Bigelow Carpet Co., near Boston, the New England Worsted Co., A. J. Smith & Co., and Higgins & Co., manufacturers, of this city, and McCallum & Co., of Philadelphia.

Alone, of all these, the New England Worsted Co. (owing to its connection with Lawrence, Stone & Co.) suspended during the Fall. The manufacture is in good condition and is rapidly increasing. It consumes from fifty to sixty thousand pounds of wool, principally Smyrna and Buenos Ayres wools, per annum.

Carpets are now a staple article with all jobbers, and not confined to exclusive carpet dealers.

Messrs. Higgins & Co. manufacture the fine Brussels carpeting so much in request, and also the Tapestry Velvet and Rennals. The latter article is also produced by the New England Worsted Co., as well as at Sing Sing; and the Rennals also by the Lowell Co., the Hartford Carpet Co., and other establishments. The Segovia carpets, of the best quality, are made by the Lowell Co., the Hartford Carpet Co., by Messrs. Higgins & Co., of this city, and McCallum & Co., of Philadelphia. Messrs. A. & J. Smith, of this city, manufacture a style,

of Tapestry Ingrain, which is peculiar to this establishment. The inferior ingrain carpets are manufactured in Philadelphia, and are in extensive demand.

The stock of carpet wools on hand is large, and prices now favor the manufacturer, as they are able at present to buy at less than any fresh wools can be imported at.

3.—SPINNING COTTON ON THE PLANTATIONS.

THE Mobile papers acknowledge the receipt of cotton yarn from the plantation of George S. Yerger, of Mississippi, manufactured directly from the seed cotton by the process of Mr. Henry, which has been so fully explained in previous volumes of the Review. We copy the following letter from Mr. Henry:

"YERGER'S PLANTATION, May 7, 1858.

"We have been delayed, but, nevertheless, have been progressing pretty well. The gin house has been well floored to suit me, and a room built to put my gin and lap in; the shafting and pulleys are all perfectly set and arranged. My gin and lap, the lappers, ten cards, two drawing frames, two speeders, and four reels, with other things well put up, and we have passed cotton through them and they work finely; and no earthly doubt remains of complete success. We are obliged, however, to seal the room overhead, as the dust from the cotton room above, is worse than Mr. Gilder expected, and would injure the machinery were the room not sealed. So soon as that is done, we shall put up the spinning frames, and, directly after, go to spinning up the seed cotton. We have some sixty bales.

"The great feature of success is the number and sort of hands, we shall use the machinery with. These we have already selected out, and have them training; they run thus: One old man sixty-five years old at the 'gin and lap'; one man (maimed, fore finger off) at 'cards'; one old man sixty years old at 'drawing'; one boy ten, and one girl twelve years old at 'speeders'; three boys, seven to nine, and three girls and boys, ten years old, 'spinning'; six women and girls to the reels; but one a good field hand, and she a girl fourteen years old—17 all told.

"These hands, you remark, do the ginning, grinding the meal for all the force on the plantation, and *crush* all the ear corn for the mules, horses, and oxen *as well as spin up the four hundred and fifty bales of cotton.*

"On this plantation there were *four men* engaged in the operation of ginning, and when the baleing was to be done additional were required.

"His steam-engine has consumed three cords of wood a day till we came here, and it will run all my machinery and the rest with one and a half, to one and three-fourths per day.

"It consumes now, when we are running all, one and three-fourths cords of wood per day; but we shall further fix it so it will not consume over one and a half cords a day.

"Now, I wish to know if any one can point me to any invention that compares with this! I know there is none which does.

"The enclosed is riving, which was made on my machinery. The spinners say it is perfect. It was seed cotton, put first into my gin and lap, then it went through my cards, then through drawing heads, and then through the speeders to be finished by the spindles.

"Yours, truly,

"GEO. G. HENRY."

4.—COTTON SEED OIL.

THE Charleston Courier speaks of this product from a factory at Providence, Rhode Island:

This specimen was prepared from seed furnished by the best Mississippi cotton, and is submitted as a specimen of the best and purest oil, suitable for table purposes. Other grades of the oil have also been tested, and recommended for burning and for lubrication, and generally for all the purposes for which oil is demanded. The prospect of such an application of cotton seed should receive

the attention of all who are interested in promoting the uses and applications of our staples, and we urge on all who have occasion to use or test oil, the expediency of procuring at least a sample of this new variety. The general and extensive use of this oil will not only increase our economic and available resources of commerce and trade, but will largely improve and benefit the culture of the cotton for the purposes now sought in the lint. This, we conceive, will result from such an increased value given to the seed as will induce planting with the most approved varieties, and will also stimulate and induce greater care in the preparation of the cotton for market.

5.—FACTORIES AT NEW ORLEANS.

The New Orleans Picayune speaks thus encouragingly of the experimental factory for hemp and cotton wool in that city:

"The engine, a low-pressure one, built by Messrs. Leeds & Co., is one of the most beautiful specimens of workmanship that can be found anywhere, having several appendages that are new. An examination of this specimen of Southern manufacture will convince the most skeptical that we are not compelled to leave Louisiana for the most difficult and complicated of all machinery. It cost about \$9,000. The machinery for the manufacture of hemp is of the latest pattern, and produces a rope that in this market brings from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ cent a pound more than any of more Northern manufacture. The factory produces 16,500 pounds of rope, or about 100 coils per day. The same machinery which twists the rope also winds it into coils. So simple is the duty of superintending the work that boys of ten to fifteen are the principal laborers in this department of the establishment. Every operation connected with the rope manufacture, the elevation of the bales of the raw material, the packing, the reduction of the shapeless mass to the silver, and the production of the rope itself, is performed by the aid of machinery.

"Attached to this establishment, and forming a part of its operations, is a considerable amount of cotton machinery. The company, at present, confine their operations to the manufacture of cotton yarns, of which they produce 600 lbs. per day. The demand is much greater, at home, than they are able to supply, and the prices obtained are very remunerative.

"A hundred operatives are employed in this factory, and more than two hundred souls depend upon it for their subsistence. It adds more than fifty families to our permanent population. The appearance of the operatives indicates content and health, most of them presenting a ruddy glow not common in this climate, and all being neat and tidy in their apparel."

6.—THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN FACTORY SYSTEM.

The United States Economist, referring to the increasing importation of provisions and materials into England, remarks:

"The whole is based upon a low money price, in order the more successfully to compete with the fabrics of other countries produced at a higher cost. It is evident that this process must ultimately have an end, since rival producers will imitate this policy of approximating the minimum cost of production. France is already, and throwing off the burdens one by one which have helped to enhance the cost of her goods. If Germany, France, and Switzerland should remove the duty on raw cotton, it would be equal to a withdrawal of a premium on English goods. In America, where there is every element of cheaper cost than either in England or Europe, the foreign goods keep the market through the erroneous system of manufacture. In Lancashire, individuals and families mostly own the mills. These individuals are perfectly familiar with every practical branch of the business. The owner can generally himself supply the absence of an able hand, and can always detect an error that may lead to loss and waste. In the mills themselves there is no outlay of capital, except what tends necessarily to cheapen production. Not a shilling is spent for show, or pomp, or display. Every expenditure is made to bear directly upon the improved production of the fabric of a uniform texture and

quality. These goods are recognized in the market, and bear a price which will remunerate the maker, whose prosperity manifests itself in new mills, built in the most economical manner, that will serve to enhance the supply of the same description and quality of goods. This has not been the American system. The factories here are corporations in charge of men little skilled in the business. Of the subscribed capital as much is spent in insuring buildings and display as would suffice in the hands of a practical individual owner to produce the cloth. Each department is in charge of an individual who holds office from the company, and who has no stimulant to improve in his particular work, or much accountability for the manner of its discharge. The owners are stockholders. The treasurer is frequently the selling agent, or a person appointed, because himself or his friends wish to have the office. The interests of nearly all the persons engaged are not identical with those of the stockholders. The agents buy the materials, and not unfrequently make bonuses and commissions on them. The orders are to turn out 'the yards,' because the selling agents who advance money to the concern want 'the yards,' and if these come in good supply the quantity of make and uniformity of texture is less regarded than it should be. The development in the Bay State affairs illustrate what has been said, but there are many things which did not appear in the report of the committee. Among these are enormous quantities of 'waste,' or goods spoiled in the manufacture through the inefficiency of the persons in charge. If wool is worth sixty cents per pound, and one-third the quantity bought is spoiled in working up, it raises the cost of that actually used to ninety cents per pound; and these goods put on the market at long credits by a financiering treasurer, whose interest account in the counting room forms a counterpart to the waste account of the mill, will scarcely yield a net surplus for a dividend on capital stock, although an accumulation of one million two hundred thousand pounds of waste may furnish the pretext for a stock dividend. In spite of these operations, however, American manufactures, in the hands of careful men and judicious selling agents, have made great progress. fancy cassimeres, prints, and lawns, have come to occupy the ground, and afford fair profits to the makers. As the 'slap-dash' style of business subsides, the markets become more steady, the goods more to be depended upon by buyers, and the profits more certain to the producers."

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

1.—EDUCATION IN NORTH CAROLINA.

From the report of C. H. Wiley, superintendent of public education of North Carolina, we cul the following which evidences marked improvement in the educational polity and prospects of the old North State.

Whole number of common school districts in North Carolina, actually laid off and provided with houses, three thousand five hundred.

Whole number of schools taught, at some time or other, at least three thousand five hundred, (for there are more schools than districts.)

Whole number of children in the State, between the ages of six and twenty-one, about two hundred and twenty thousand.

Whole number of children now receiving instruction at the common schools, one hundred and fifty thousand.

Number of children receiving instruction at colleges, academies, select and private schools, eleven thousand.

Number of children being educated out of the State, three hundred.

Number taught at home and at Sunday schools, two thousand.

Number of children not receiving instruction at all, three thousand seven hundred, or say four thousand.

The account then stands thus: White children between the ages of six and twenty-one in North Carolina, two hundred and twenty thousand.

Number of illiterate men and women that will grow up from these, four thousand.

Proportion of ignorant persons in the rising generation, one in fifty-five, and at most one in fifty.

In seventy-six of the counties which made returns to me last year there was expended on the schools the sum of two hundred and twenty-six thousand two hundred and thirty-eight dollars and forty-nine cents; and in the whole State the expenditure was, perhaps, two hundred and fifty-three thousand dollars. In seventy-six counties reporting to me there was, last fall, in the hands of the chairmen an unexpended balance of one hundred and fifty-seven thousand five hundred and nineteen dollars and sixty cents; and perhaps in the hands of all the chairmen the sum of one hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars.

The number of certificates granted to teachers during the last year, and reported to me, was two thousand two hundred and fifty-six. The number reported, in which the sexes were distinguished, give two hundred and fourteen female teachers.

The whole number of teachers licensed was probably twenty-five hundred.

The average length of all the schools for the whole State is about four months—the average attendance about forty scholars per school, and the average wages of teachers in all North Carolina is about twenty-four dollars per month, varying from fifteen to forty dollars in different localities, and at different seasons.

The average cost per scholar, of all the children educated at the common schools, is \$1 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ cts., and the average cost to each parent of the State, for all the expenditures of the common schools, is about sixty-six and two-third cents per annum, or sixteen and two-third cents per month while the schools are in operation.

2.—SOUTHERN SCHOOL BOOKS.

THE many able gentlemen who were appointed at the several Southern conventions to look into and report upon this subject have, it seems, up to this date, profoundly reposed over the appointment. Is it impossible to get Southern men to move in this matter? Must we forever take our school books, with all the bias which is given to them, in the hostile hands through which they pass to our children? When in Charleston the other day, we noted that our esteemed friend, Col. Capers, of the Citadel, was using Wilson's United States as a text book. Perhaps he could not do better, and has taken the best to be had, yet this work contains such passages as the following:

"Of the state of manners and morals in Maryland, Virginia, and the Southern colonies generally, we cannot give so gratifying an account. While the upper classes of the inhabitants among the Southern people were distinguished for a luxurious and expensive hospitality, they were too generally addicted to the vices of card-playing, gambling, and intemperance, while hunting and cock-fighting were favorite amusements with persons of all ranks." * * "It cannot be denied, however, that New England colonial character and New England colonial history furnish, on the whole, the most agreeable reminiscences, as well as the most abundant materials for the historian."

But to return to the committee: One of its members, an able scholar and gentleman, (we may as well give his name,) President Talmadge, thus writes:

"I trust much good will result from the deliberations of the committee. Several subjects will claim their attention: several text books need expurgating from their fanatical and unscriptural sentiments on the slavery question; though I do not now recollect any one of these books that cannot be dispensed with entirely, without serious loss.

"In the higher departments of science and literature, it appears to me that considerable latitude of choice should be left to the respective professors and teachers. In English lexicography I would like to see Webster displaced, and Worcester's system of dictionaries adopted for the South. It is true the New Haven improvements of Webster's dictionaries have removed many of the most obnoxious features, but there are still great faults left, in my humble judgment,

and I do not like to see encouragement given to these Vandal innovations on the 'English undefiled.'

"We ought to have in the South a uniform system of Latin and Greek grammars, to prevent confusion in our schools and colleges."

"The main point, I think, where good may result from the labors of the committee, will be in the adoption of a uniform system of text books for the earlier stages of education. Such a system, I have often thought, might have been most advantageously secured for the whole nation, by the Smithsonian Institute. But there have been obstacles in the way. I hope we shall at least gain this desirable object for the South, through the labors of the committee."

"By a combination of teachers and printers in the North, from purely mercenary motives, and with no reference to the value of a book, great confusion has resulted from the variety of text books introduced."

"The experience of one of my neighbors is a common example of a crying evil, which has created needless obstructions and expense to the interests of education. He has a large family of sons and daughters, and has had occasion to send them to a variety of schools far and near. He informs me that he now has on hand a large variety of text books, making up a voluminous library of no use; which books, however, have constituted one of the largest items of his educational expenses. Each child he sends out in succession, must be furnished with an entirely new system of text books."

"Judicious action on the part of the committee, I think, may go far to put an end to this evil in the South. The object of the committee will, of course, be not only to select and endorse the best editions of text books, but, as far as possible, to secure uniformity in their use in schools and colleges."

"From the known ability and scholarly attainments of the gentlemen on the committee, their conclusions will have great weight; and the public is looking for highly beneficial results from their labors."

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

THOUGH we have a domain which gives a mile square to each family, which has quadrupled in extent since the Government was formed, which is about as large as Europe with its sixty States, republics, kingdoms, and empires, with all their long lines of royalty, and nobility, and classic fame and name, and singularly enough, nearly exactly that of the palmy days of the empires of Rome or Alexander, we still do not hold as much land on the continent of North America as little Great Britain does at this day; and with all of our filibuster propensities, have not yet possessed ourselves of one-third of its whole extent! We have, in periods of about twenty or twenty-five years, swallowed great mouthfuls around us; and, as another twenty years is coming round, it is full time for our neighbors to be on the alert, it being still doubtful to which side we shall turn. The whole of Mexico would be just such a repeat in size as was French and Spanish Louisiana. Central America would cover but little more than half of Texas roundly; the whole of Russian America

is not much bigger than our Nebraska Territory; and we may say the same of Greenland with all its icy mountains, whales, and white bears. The whole of the West India Islands together, are not a great deal bigger than Florida. Gen'l Houston's proposed Mexican protectorate sets our minds running now in that direction.

In another part of the Review, the reader will perceive what Mr. Ruffin, of Virginia thinks of LIBERIA. We have here the opinion of the Farmville Journal, which notices the return of two slaves from that quarter. They were emancipated by the late John Watson, of Prince Edward county. The sum of \$4,000 was left by Mr. Watson to carry sixty of his slaves to that "Republic." They give a very discouraging account of the trip out and their treatment after they arrived. The Journal says:

"Before leaving the ship, the agent of the Colonization Society induced the emigrants to purchase quantities of cheap calico, brass jewelry, &c., assur-

ing them that they would need such articles in their new home, but on their arrival they found they had been deceived and defrauded out of their money. The provisions carried out for their support for the first six months were sold daily before their eyes, and they were compelled to buy provisions every day, often of very inferior quality, and insufficient in quantity. The agent employed by the society would sell to the bakers, and the bakers to the emigrants—their own provisions—at exorbitant prices, the agent receiving part of the profits."

On their arrival they only received a half acre of land, instead of the five acres promised. They found provisions at exorbitant prices, and a good deal of bad treatment besides, from the authorities. They allege that the President of the colony, if not engaged in the slave-trade, connives at it. They have returned to slavery, believing "that freedom to the negro in Africa is the greatest curse that could possibly befall him; and that had the Liberians the means of getting away, seven-eighths of them would gladly return to the United States and serve the hardest masters to be found in the South, feeling that the condition of the slave here is far preferable to that of the most favored of the inhabitants of Liberia."

We give the *growth of population* in the Northwest from 1800 to 1857, thus:

In 1800.....	50,240
1810.....	272,325
1820.....	792,719
1830.....	1,460,218
1840.....	2,967,556
1850.....	4,721,551
1857.....	7,200,000

This shows that one-third the entire white population of the United States, in the year 1857, was in the six Northwestern States, and that four-fifths of this population here came within thirty years, or the average limit of one generation. Let us now compare the growth of the Northwest, since 1820, with the growth of New England and New York on one side, and that of the original Southern States on the other, and let us see how they are likely to stand at the end of another generation:

	1820.	1847.
N. England & N. York.	3,028,624	5,600,000
The original South.....	8,028,087	5,080,000
The Northwest.....	792,719	7,200,000

In the last thirty-seven years the

South has increased sixty-seven per cent., the North proper eighty-five per cent., and the Northwest eight hundred per cent.

Dr. EDWARD JARVIS, of Massachusetts, has computed from the mortality reports the following table of *LONGEVITY*:

Classes of occupations.	No. of deaths.	Sum of ages, years.	Average longevity, years.
Cultivators of the earth...	11,741	753,457	64.02
Active mechanics abroad...	3,376	161,881	48.24
Active mechanics in shops...	4,481	206,337	46.56
Inactive mechanics in shops	4,628	193,689	41.85
Mechanics, trades not specified...	504	21,784	43.22
Employed on the ocean...	1	2,785	128.340
Labourers, &c.	6	8,372	373.681
Others laboring abroad....	19	862	37.558
Professional men.	10	1,382	72.669
Merchants, financiers, capitalists.	15	3,574	48.39

The difference of longevity in the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th classes, shows the effect of exercise and air upon the protraction of life, and is worthy of consideration by all in the selection of employments for themselves or for their children.

Longevity in some leading occupations in Massachusetts, N. York, and R. Island.

Occupations.	Deaths.	Average longevity.
Clergymen.....	389	55.36
Lawyers.....	276	54.76
Physicians.....	540	54.32
Coopers.....	338	57.04
Blacksmiths.....	822	51.51
Carpenters.....	2,052	49.72
Masons.....	492	48.24
Tanners.....	230	47.90
Merchants and clerks.	2,386	47.46
Cabinet makers.....	253	46.34
Shoemakers.....	3,233	43.03
Painters.....	500	42.37
Tailors.....	486	41.08

THE discussion on the slavery clause of the discipline which took up so much time at the recent *General Conference of the Methodist Church, South*, at Nashville, was ended by the adoption of the following resolutions and preamble :

Whereas the rule in the general rules of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, forbidding the "buying and selling of men, women, and children, with an intention to enslave them," is ambiguous in its phraseology, and liable to be construed as antagonistic to the institution of slavery, in regard to which the church has no right to meddle, except in enforcing the duties of masters and servants, as set forth in the Holy Scriptures; and whereas a strong desire for the expunction of said rule has been expressed in nearly all parts of our ecclesiastical connection; therefore,

Resolved, By the delegates of the annual conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in general conference assembled, that the rule forbidding the "buying and selling of men, women, and children, with an intention to enslave them," be expunged from the general rules of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

Resolved, That in adopting the foregoing resolution this conference expresses no opinion in regard to the African slave trade, to which the rule in question has been "understood" to refer.

Resolved, That the bishops, or others presiding in the annual conferences, be and are hereby instructed to lay the foregoing resolutions before each of the annual conferences at their next ensuing sessions for their concurrent action.

Resolved, That the President of each annual conference shall be required, as soon as possible after the adjournment of the conference, to report to the book editor the vote on the resolution to expunge the rule in question; and when the book editor shall have received returns from the annual conferences voting on the said resolution, he shall lay the information before one of the bishops; and if it shall be found that there is a concurrence of three-fourths of all the members of the annual conferences present, and voting on the resolution in favor of the expunging of the rule, the bishop shall direct the book editor to expunge it accordingly.

Resolved, That if any annual conference or conferences refuse or neglect to vote on the aforesaid resolution, the members of such conference or conferences shall not be counted for or against the expunging of the rule.

Resolved, That the publication of the foregoing preamble and resolutions in the Church papers shall be considered a sufficient notification of the action of this conference in the premises.

Resolved, That the Bishops are respectfully requested to set forth in the Pastoral Address the platform occupied by the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, on the relation of masters and servants, agreeably to the principles contained in the foregoing preamble and resolutions.

A recent meeting of States Rights and Southern Rights Men, was held at Clinton, Louisiana, when a report, and the following resolutions were submitted by a Committee consisting of Edward Deloney, Gen. Munday, Messrs. Patterson, Cole, and Noona. The recommendations of the Committee are worthy of attention not only in Louisiana, but in all of the Southern States. We like to see the formation of county and parish clubs, and associations, all over the South, to promote our organization and secure a union of councils among us. The resolutions embrace:

1. The restoration and practice of the pure doctrines of States Rights, and a total separation from all ideas and phases of *Nationality*, as directly opposed to state sovereignty, and tending to central usurpation and injustice.

2. The Constitution, as the only compromise for the South. Opposition and resistance to all others as subversive of the Constitution itself, by a system of bargaining and bartering away the rights of the States; a species of political strategy, or jugglery, unworthy to be countenanced by a highminded and intelligent people.

3. The maintenance of the constitutional rights of the South in full force and unimpaired, and the equality of the slave States within the Union, or independence out of it.

4. Opposition to the measure of constructing a railroad to the Pacific, by the Federal Government, as unwarranted by the constitution, and as a great scheme for public plunder and speculation on the Government, at the

expense of increased taxation upon Southern labor and produce for the benefit of Northern aggrandizement.

5. The speedy acquisition of Southern territory and the extension of the area of slavery as an absolute and indispensable necessity to the South.

6. The additional supply of slave-labor, urgently demanded for the more full development of the resources, wealth, and power of the South, and for the supply of newly acquired Southern territory.

7. A commercial union of the Southern States, by a system of railroad improvements intersecting and linking together all her parts, with a direct commerce from her own ports, with all countries.

8. The encouragement and building up of Southern manufactoryes of all kinds, and the employment of Southern mechanics and artizans.

9. Southern education and the encouragement and support of Southern colleges, schools, and school-books.

10. A united and concurrent co-operation of all true men of the South, for the sake of the South.

Therefore resolved, That the chairman of this meeting appoint a Central Committee of seventeen, with the view of organizing the "States Rights Democracy" of this parish.

Resolved, That this meeting recommends to the people of the several parishes, to hold meetings, organize and appoint delegates to a State Convention, to be held in New Orleans on the 8th day of January next, with the view of a general organization of the States Rights men of Louisiana, and for the transaction of such other business as may be deemed necessary and important.

In publishing the proceedings of the recent Convention at Montgomery, we regret that the REPORT ON THE SLAVE TRADE, by Mr. Yancey, of Alabama, was omitted. We append it now:

The undersigned, one of the Committee appointed by the late Southern Commercial Convention to report upon the subject of the African slave-trade—not having had time to read and digest the report of the Chairman—submits the following as more specifically expressive of his own opinions; that the distinctive feature which char-

acterizes Southern industry is slave labor; that before the formation of this Government this feature was also a characteristic of Northern labor, in a limited though practical degree.

This species of labor was recognized by the Federal Constitution, and one of its provisions (Art. 1, Sec. 9, Paragraph 1,) expressly provided against the passage of any law prohibiting the foreign slave-trade, within a given period.

In the year 1807 this trade was declared by Congress to be illegal, and in 1819 an act was passed to send national armed vessels to stop our vessels from engaging in the trade—and in 1820 an act was passed declaring it to be piracy.

The effect of these laws have been to restrict the expansion of this peculiar species of Southern labor, by the usual laws which govern trade in all other species of property, and to keep down the prices of Southern lands, while Northern labor, in addition to its own natural increase, has received the stimulus of an average emigration of white labor, in some years reaching as high as half a million persons.

The operation of this law has been a direct governmental discrimination against the South on this most vital question affecting its prosperity—its labor. The act is, in the opinion of the undersigned, but a part of that system of discriminating laws, which, affording bounties to Northern industry, have been restrictions upon the industry of our own section, and which have enriched and built up the one section, while they have been as shackles upon every effort made by the other to rise to national prosperity.

The spirit of these restrictive laws has passed into and become the leading idea of a powerful and successful sectional majority, which declares that no more slave States shall be admitted into the Union.

Without expressing any matured opinion in the views submitted as to the expediency of reopening the slave trade, the undersigned believes that the laws prohibiting the foreign slave trade are in violation of the spirit of the Constitution and are unjust and an insult to the South, and, therefore, ought to be repealed, and submits for the consideration of this body the following resolution:

Resolved, That the laws of Congress prohibiting the foreign slave-trade ought to be repealed.

W. L. YANCEY.

PROF. GEORGE STEUCKRATH, who has been for some time in connection with our Review, and who is now traveling in its service through the Southern States, sends us very often interesting minutes of his most successful progress. From his letters we make and shall continue to make some extracts.

Writing from Marion C. H., South Carolina, he says:

"The agricultural resources of Marion district are equal to those of any district in South Carolina, but 'thousands of acres' of fertile land have not been reclaimed, in which are large bodies of swamp and bay lands susceptible of being very easily trained. This district, with regard to the skillful culture of the soil, ranks with any district of the State. It is one of the stations on the Wilmington & Manchester railroad, and has also a stream navigable for steamboats running through the district to the Atlantic—the Great Pee Dee river; (General Marion used to write it 'P. D.')

"The district was the principal seat of Marion's battles and campaigns in the Revolutionary war. Five miles north of Marion Court house is the Bowling-Green, one of his camps; and about twenty-three miles south of this place is another camp, called Marion's Redoubt on the Great Pee Dee river, opposite Snow's island, which was his famous retreat during the whole war of the Revolution.

"General Marion was the most renowned partisan leader of the Revolution, and well deserved his fame. His ambition was indeed *virtue*, for his sole object was the good of his country, and it is a remarkable fact in his history, that, when all the officers of the Whig cause of or above the rank of Colonel fled before the victorious arms of the British, beyond the borders of South Carolina, *he alone*, maintained his hold upon his native soil, and kept his invincible little brigade constantly marshalled, amid the fastnesses which nature has created for him.

"The character of Marion resembles more nearly that of General Washington than any other general of the

Revolution. One of the most sublime passages of history is that which records a scene in the Legislature of South Carolina after the Revolution, in which it was proposed to exempt the generals and other commanding officers in South Carolina from all liability for plunder-property during the Revolution. General Marion, who was then a member of the Legislature arose, and said: 'Mr. Speaker, I move that the name of Francis Marion may be stricken from that bill, for he has never done any thing, either in peace or war, for which he is not willing to answer, according to the laws of his country.'

"General Marion never allowed his soldiers to plunder!

"Sixteen miles south of this place, in this district, was fought the battle of Blue Savannah, which was a tory camp. Marion and his men made a forced march from above, and surprised during the night the unsuspecting enemy. So little did they dream of the approach of Marion, that when the onslaught was made upon the camp, one poor tory was shot with high, low, jack, and the game clenched in his hand.

"At the southern extremity of the district lies Snow's island, before mentioned, where, about six years ago, a gentleman found, on splitting a tree, at, or in the vicinity of Marion's camp, a sword imbedded in its trunk. The tree was very large, and it is supposed that the wood had grown over the sword. I heard, also, many other reminiscences and traditions, which would be exceedingly interesting to be mentioned, but I have now no time to record them."

From Pendleton, S. C., he says:

"Near Pendleton is situated the former residence of the late Hon. John C. Calhoun, and now occupied by a son, Col. Andrew P. Calhoun, the President of the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina. The people of Pendleton, and vicinity, are noted for their hospitality and kindness. The society is said to be good as any in the State. The village, in itself, is small; but the surrounding country, for three or four miles, is covered with the summer residences of educated and intelligent planters from the southern part of the State, which renders it a very desirable summer resort.

"Pendleton is in full view of the Blue Ridge mountains, that loom up majestically in the distance.

"It is a very high point, and can be seen for four or five miles on either side. According to the statement of the 'oldest inhabitant,' the present site of the village was agreed upon by the engineers appointed for the purpose from their having accidentally broken their *jug* at this place, and being therefore without a supply of the '*Oh! be joyful!*' they resolved to locate and return.

"About twenty-five miles above Pendleton, is situated the German settlement of Walhalla; said to be a flourishing town."

From Charlotte, North Carolina, he writes:

"It is generally known that '*Independence*' was proclaimed here a year or more previous to the National Declaration made at Philadelphia. There has been some question of the authenticity of the 'Mecklenburg Declaration' made by the inhabitants, but the facts have been so fully investigated by Messrs. Hawke, Baneroff, and other historians, as to put the matter beyond any further controversy. It is established also, as I myself can testify, by the tradition of the place. I meet with no person here, who does not cherish the 20th of May, 1775, as a *Dies fas* in our national history.

"I will give some few particulars connected with this signal historical event. There was, anterior to the convention of the 20th of May, 1775, a call for election of delegates of each captain's company in this county, to meet here on the 19th of May, 1775, and a committee appointed on that day reported the Declaration on the 20th of May, 1775, which 'Declaration' was unanimously adopted.

"It should be borne in mind, that the Declaration of the 20th of May, 1775, is a very different production from the resolves of the 30th of the same month by the committee-men who were appointed at the convention of the 20th of May, whose business it was to regulate the local affairs of the county. These resolves have by some been misunderstood, as the 'Mecklenburg Declaration' of the 20th of May.

"The validity of the Declaration, and of the time, is in this county so well established, as not to admit of a doubt; and the citizens of Mecklenburg have, for half a century or more, been in the habit of celebrating the 20th of

May as the birthday of Independence.

"Here may be seen the house still standing, in which Lord Cornwallis had his headquarters in his southern campaign; and here, too, he met with that resistance which caused him to declare this the '*the hornets' nest of America*'

"There are many reminiscences of the Revolution still to be seen here, among which, is a line of pits around the corporated limits of the town which the British general had dug for the safety of his sentinels.

"It is related that, when his sentinels were placed on duty, the citizens get them off their guard and shoot them with their own rifles. Afterwards they were placed in pairs for better safety. This, however, did not avail, as they changed their rifles for muskets, and as they used buckshot, some of them would pass between the logs and kill the sentinels. Then the British officer commanded pits to be dug about four feet square, and about that depth, in which they were placed for greater security. This, however, did not answer, as two Whigs would go together, to where they knew a sentinel to be placed, and placing themselves on opposite sides in the dark, one, by noise, would draw the sentinel's signal fire, and the other shooting at the flash of his pan would blow his brains out.

"This region of country was greatly distinguished in colonial times by the royal favor. The village itself was called in honor of the Queen of George III., and the county was called from her birth-place, Mecklenburg in Germany. The only institution of learning established at that early day by the Royal Charter, was what was known as Queen's College, located in this town, in which many of the distinguished men of the Revolution received such an education as the facilities then offered could give, among whom was the immortal Andrew Jackson, who, with his illustrious friend, James K. Polk, was born in this county.

"The spirit of learning and patriotism has not passed away from the people of this region!"

Speaking of the Columbia and Charlotte railroad, he says:

"Having been a passenger myself on these roads, I can cheerfully state, that the roads are in the best order, and that their conductors are gentlemanly and polite. With regard to the coaches,

I found them handsomely furnished, of the newest style, comfortable, and commodious. This line of road passes over an elevated and healthy country, free from swamps, mosquitoes, trustles, and is as expeditious as any other line, passing by Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, the most beautiful city of America, with its elegant society and splendid gardens, and is in the language of Governor Brown the General Postmaster, the city of philosophy and flowers. It leads also by Charlotte, the birthplace of the American Independence; by Greenboro, where formerly stood the Guilford Court House, the site of the hard fought battle between Lord Cornwallis and General Green—the decisive conflict of the American Revolution; and by Raleigh, the capital of North Carolina, known as the city of The Oaks, named after the graceful cavalier of Queen Elizabeth's Court. At Sugar Green, the dividing line of North and South Carolina, I was pointed to the birthplace of Ex-President James K. Polk, and informed that General Andrew Jackson, the hero of the battle of New Orleans, was born in the Waxaco Settlement thirteen miles east of that point.

We have received from C. E. Pickett, of California, several letters advocating Southern union, and a separation from the North. We have only space to quote from one of them, as follows:

"The basis, framework, and controlling influence of Northern sentiment is Puritanism—the old Roundhead rebel refuse of England, which, in that country as well as this, has ever been an unruly, dissatisfied, hard-headed, stiff-necked sect of Pharisees; always preaching in favor of civil and religious liberty, yet themselves the veriest foes to all freedom of conscience and action. The worst bigots on earth, and meanest of tyrants when they have power to exercise it, they have never had the slightest conception of what constitutes true liberty, and are incapable, by nature, of giving or receiving such. Their beau ideal of government is a sort of mixed theocratic oligarchy, the worst ever instituted.

"The original stock inhabitants of the South were Norman cavaliers and their adherents, with which has been intermingled some of the better sort of Celtic and Gallie blood. Born to rule,

and inherently possessed with a knowledge of political science, these framed a government suited to their spirit and the condition of their society, based as it was upon an inferior and slave substratum. Such was unsuited to the genius and condition of the people North. When the present General Government was formed, the Southern delegates, though yielding some points in the main, framed it in accordance with their ideas. Here was the first defeat of the North. Under the elder Adams, having control of the machinery, the latter attempted, through false and strained construction, to bend the constitution to meet their native and original views; but such proving unpopular to a majority of the Union, they were hurled from power, the Southern school reinstated, which ever since has had the chief direction of affairs. This long continued supremacy has engendered the most bitter hatred in the bosoms of the leading disciples of the other. It rankles deep in their hearts, as now manifested; for after several futile, but fair and legitimate attempts to regain possession of affairs at the federal capital, they resolved upon the boldest and most Satanic sort of revenge. In part, I do not blame them for thus acting. They found that the practical application of our democratic republican system to their Northern society was working infinite evils, and that the only way to show its falsehoods, and at the same time head off the South and get possession of the Government, or rather destroy the fabric, was to join in with the already rapidly growing, spurious, and demoralizing largest-liberty-spirit North, and thus gain a supremacy for "free democracy"—a compound of abolitionism, red republicanism, agrarianism, socialism, and a dozen other infernal isms of the same brood."

There are few men at the South who desire disunion for itself, though there are thousands who regard it as an inevitable event, unless an almost miraculous interposition takes place in our national affairs. These are unable to indulge the hopes which are actuating others, and in casting about for an ark of safety from great and impending dangers, find it in separation. Great as this evil may be, there are greater ones in the eyes of the true patriot. The Philadelphia Inquirer, a very liberal sheet from

which we quote the following, (duly appreciating its high and undeserved compliments,) will therefore understand the position of the Editor of this Review, who has the same admiration which he has for the past glories and greatness of the Republic.

"Mr. De Bow," says the Inquirer, "recently delivered a lecture in Charleston, and one of the public journals of that city says, that he spoke of 'disunion as the haven of our rest and our ark of refuge.' We trust that this will prove a mistake or an exaggeration. Mr. De Bow is one of the most accomplished men of the South. He is thoroughly versed in the statistics of the Republic, and was officially connected with the preparation of the last Census. That man, therefore, should be a disunionist, is most remarkable. He has had an opportunity of watching the growth of our country, step by step; has been able to witness through the medium of facts and figures that have been submitted to his consideration, the onward and gigantic strides of this mighty Republic, and he must have kindled with national pride, when contemplating the probable future. We are among the youngest of the nations of the earth, and we are also among the mightiest!" * * * "Who may, with the slightest degree of confidence, predict our probable condition, when again four score years and ten shall have rolled away? And yet, under these circumstances, and with such a prospect, we find intelligent, educated, observing, and enlightened individuals, speaking with distrust and despondency, and talking of disunion as an 'ark of refuge.' It is indeed difficult to realize this singular and almost incredible inconsistency. Mr. De Bow, as already intimated, is familiar with all the details of the nation. He has been compelled, in the preparation of the last census, to sift and winnow the wheat from the chaff, to condense and elucidate an immense array of figures, and to spread before the world, in a very able compendium, such a picture of national progress, national resources, and national strength, as was never exhibited before under similar circumstances. To suppose that such a man, after having compiled such a work, would become a disunionist is, we repeat, almost incredible, and we can only indulge a hope that the accomplished statistician has been misunderstood or misreported.

Theorists, visionaries, ultras, and madmen, may occasionally utter treasonable sentiments, and with comparative impunity, but when an enlightened practical man indulges in such language as we have quoted, the fact is calculated to excite comment, induce inquiry, and elicit expressions of regret and surprise."

SUMMER RESORTS OF VIRGINIA.—The present summer will be one of great activity with the traveling public. The progress of railroad improvement brings Virginia within reach of all the world, and we are in hopes it will arrest nearly the whole tide of Southern travel. A contemporary has presented a picture of Virginia retreats. He has omitted, however, the Warrenton Springs, which are a very pleasant and comfortable family resort; and OLD POINT COMFORT, one of the most enticing and healthful retreats in America. To our mind its admirable bathing facilities, its invigorating breezes, its magnificent sea views make it the most desirable of all summer seats, and we commend it from personal knowledge, under its present excellent management, to friends everywhere.

Lippincott & Co., of Philadelphia, send us their proposals for a new *Latin-English School Lexicon*, on the basis of the Latin-German Lexicon of Dr. C. K. Ingerslev, to be edited by Dr. Crooks and Professor Schem, of Dickinson College. It will make an imperial octavo of 1,000 pages. Many of the articles of the German work have been recast or rewritten. The school lexicon of Ingerslev has met in Germany with extraordinary success, as appears from the encomiums of eminent German scholars.

From Harper & Brothers we receive—

1. *Fred Markham in Russia: or the Boy Traveler in the Land of the Czar*; by W. H. Kingston, with numerous illustrations. An excellent children's story book.

2. *Wyoming: its History, Stirring Incidents, and Romantic Adventure*; by George Peck, D. D., with illustrations. The author has enjoyed rare advantages, and his object has been strict conformity to historic truth. The whole constitutes one of the most deeply interesting chapters of American history.

We received from A. S. Barnes & Co., of New York, whose advertisement will be found on another page,

the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth series of the *National Reader of Parker and Watson*. They are adapted to the earliest age, and advance progressively to the highest necessities of the school and academy. The fifth series is a large book, containing a treatise or elocution with exercises in reading and declamation. As far as we have been enabled to examine them, the series appears well adapted to the instruction of youth, and is free from the blemishes which so often disfigure such works. We shall examine them more critically hereafter.

We are indebted to the publishers for Volume VII of the series of Mr. Benton's *Abridgement of the Debates of Congress*, published by D. Appleton & Co., New York. The work will be completed in fifteen volumes, of seven hundred and fifty pages each, which are put at the low price of \$3 per volume. By some mishap, we beg to inform the publishers volumes I and VI have not been received by us.

These Debates have been accruing for a period of nearly seventy years, and fill more than one hundred volumes—one-third of them quarto—and cannot be purchased for less than \$500, nor read, when purchased, except as a necessity, nor anything found in them when wanted except upon toilsome search. In the meantime, they contain the history of the working of the Government from its foundation—show what has been done, and how it was done—and shed light upon the study of all impending questions: for there is not a question of the day, and will not be while the Government continues, which may not be illustrated by something to be found in these Debates.

This abridgement will not be restricted to the speeches of the celebrated orators, but extend to the business men, and to the plainest speakers who spoke, so as to give information on subjects of surviving interest.

Our agricultural friends will note the advertisement in our pages of A. W. Gay & Co., 118 Maiden Lane, who manufacture the Warner and West pump which have reached great celebrity. The former is commended for its extreme simplicity of construction, great strength, and consequent durability and cheapness of repair. Although it has but two valves necessary to its action, (an additional foot-

valve being put in for greater security,) it is perfectly double-acting, throwing a continuous stream, with great force. There is no stuffing box in this pump—the pressure being held by a cup packing, like that upon the working piston, working in a cylinder, fitted for the purpose, within the upper air chamber—which, we think, must be a great improvement, as stuffing is so liable to be deranged and to leak under a strong pressure, to say nothing of the great loss by friction incident thereto. It has also two air-chambers—the one as before mentioned surrounding the upper cylinder and communicating with the pump above the valves, the other surrounding the lower or working cylinder, and communicating below the valves; thus the action of the valves is cushioned upon both sides by air—preventing water-hammer and vacuum thump, and enabling a much smaller and less expensive pipe to supply the pump. The valves are very accessible, and simply and cheaply repaired. They work much easier than any other pump we have ever seen, the 4-inch cylinder size being worked by children, in wells 100 feet deep; and as they are extremely cheap, as well as simple and strong, we freely recommend them.

See also the card of the Baltimore Dental College which we believe is the only institution of the kind in America and has been for a long time in the most successful operation.

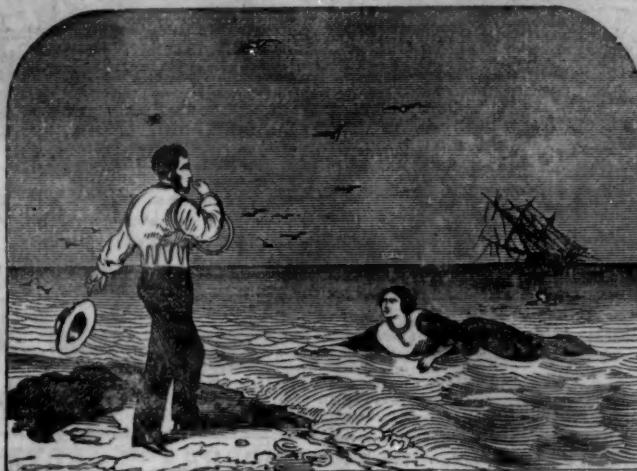
A considerable, perhaps the chief part of the income of the Review results from its advertising sheets, which we would gladly occupy exclusively with Southern business houses; but it has been found impracticable to obtain them, and, therefore, we incline to refuse none that are offered, let them come from what quarter they may. Our aim, however, is to obtain only the best houses. We adopt the course pursued by all other Southern Journals.

Those of our new subscribers who could not be supplied with the January, February, and March numbers, will not be charged with them, and they will receive our apologies. In consequence of the increased circulation, the issue for these months was early exhausted. We are endeavoring to recover a few of them to supply orders. The necessary suspension of the Weekly Press has already been announced.

BUSINESS DIRECTORY—NEW YORK.

BUNKER'S PATENT LIFE-PRESERVING SHIRT.

DEPOT 167 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.



"SAUVE QUI PEUT."

The melancholy loss of life attendant upon the foundering of the Steamers "Central America," "Arctic," "Pacific," and many others, indicates to all reflecting minds, that adequate means for self-preservation did not exist. It is a strange idiosyncrasy of human nature, that while the ingenuity of man is taxed to the utmost to guard, preserve and keep treasures, which are only valuable while life exists—that this great *life* itself, this vital principle which animates every movement, and without which all else is naught, should be so carelessly risked, so heedlessly guarded, and so little precaution taken to guard that which the Great Giver of all alone can bestow, and which when once lost, is lost forever.

In appealing to those whose inclinations, pleasures, or necessities, induce them to travel on the highways of water, where so many have found a watery grave, the undersigned does so with the full conviction and belief, that he can furnish them an article combining every requisite of safety in times of danger and emergency. The invention is in the form of a shirt, easily put on, can be worn either under or outside of the ordinary apparel, leaving all the limbs at perfect freedom, and covering the most vital portions of the body. The material is very strong, at the same light and compact, and cannot be effected by any degree of heat or cold. It occupies no more space than an ordinary shirt, and for the use of ladies and children, must recommend itself. The inventor would avoid saying too much in his own behalf, but takes pride in referring to the testimonials of gentlemen, than whom none stand higher as men of humanity, of large extended practical experience, and who have given him their most unqualified opinion of approval, that this is the best and most complete Life Preserver extant. To all travelers on the lake, ocean, or river, this article is indispensable, and the possession of one cannot fail to give confidence in an emergency. On our Western and Southern waters, accidents are almost daily occurrences, and on no one occasion has it happened, but what many valuable lives might have been saved, had the requisite provision which these Life Preservers afford been on hand. How many desolate homes, widowed hearts, and orphan children testify to this! Calm reflection on this subject must direct attention to them. The staunchest ships and steamers, have gone down, and will continue to do so. Midst panic, despair, and confusion, the cry goes forth "Sauve qui peut," but the undersigned most sincerely and truly affirms, that girded by one of these Life Preserving Shirts, the wearer can calmly and confidently buffet the howling storm, and midst the wild winds and mad waves, commit himself to the raging waters, and float as calmly and securely as upon a summer sea.

Attention is earnestly solicited, and an examinator is requested at the depot of the subscriber, who will take pleasure in showing this article, assuring the community that a call upon him does not involve a purchase.

CHARLES J. BUNKER,

167 Broadway, New York.

July-1.

BUSINESS DIRECTORY—LOUISIANA, VIRGINIA, MARYLAND.



BELLEVILLE IRON WORKS, ALGIERS, LA., (OPPOSITE NEW ORLEANS.)

Iron founders and manufacturers of steam engines, sugar mills, vacuum pans, cotton presses, saw mills, draining machines, and machinery of every description. Iron and brass castings made to order. Steamboat, cotton press, railroad, and plantation work executed with care and the utmost dispatch. Metallic and composition packing for steam cylinders, of all kinds, made to order at the shortest notice. Grate bars of various patterns and styles; stirrups, flange bolts, &c., constantly on hand. Iron fronts and builders castings furnished with despatch and in the best possible style; and Boiler work of every description.

These works are located on the river bank, and have an excellent wharf belonging to them for the accommodation of steamboats and vessels. They are close to the depot of the Opelousas railroad, the track of which connects with the works.

BALTIMORE BELL AND BRASS WORKS.

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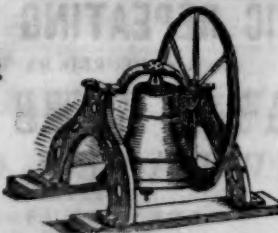
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Keep on hand, and make to order, BELLS of any required tone, from 1 to 10,000 lbs. weight.

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VERTICAL & CIRCULAR SAW MILLS,
Grist-Mill Machinery, Tobacco Presses,
AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS, &c.,
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FOR EVERY VARIETY OF

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PRESERVED ONIONS,
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MANUFACTURED BY THE
NEW HAVEN ARMS COMPANY,
NEW HAVEN, CONN.

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Rifles, Carbines, and Pistols loading with from 7 to 30 balls; can be discharged with greater rapidity and certainty than any other Pistol or Rifle.

THIRTY BALLS CAN BE LOADED AND DISCHARGED IN ONE MINUTE.

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(Successor to W. Hull & Son,)

MANUFACTURERS OF

STEAM SOAP,
AND PATENT REFINED MOULD CANDLES,
ALSO EVERY VARIETY OF FANCY SOAPS,
NOS. 108, 110 & 112 CLIFF STREET,

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BUSINESS DIRECTORY—PHILADELPHIA—SOUTH CAROLINA.

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STEAM SUGAR REFINERS,
No. 221 Vine Street, Philadelphia.

Manufactures of Double Refined Loaf, Hard Crushed, Coarse and Fine Pulverized, Soft Crushed Sugars, and Steam Refined Syrup. April-ly

CIDER AND VINEGAR.

HENRY F. NIEMANN,
327 South Water Street, Philadelphia.

Clarified Cider Vinegar, White Wine Vinegar, Champagne Cider, warranted to meet the approbation of the purchaser. Barrels in good shipping order. April-ly

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JOHN GERNEY, *Seedman and Florist*: Nursery corner 10th street and Passjunk Road, opposite the Moyamensing Prison, is prepared to send 100 varieties of choice and rare Flower Seeds for \$5; 20 choice varieties for \$1; and 10 of the newest and choicest for \$1.
Catalogues sent on application. Address

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WHOLESALE DRUGGISTS,
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We are the sole agents in Philadelphia for the sale of the celebrated FRENCH PLATE GLASS, from the "COMPAGNIE DE FLOREFFE." Also, Agents for the celebrated French and American Zinc Paints.

At our Steam Paint Mill, we manufacture White Lead, Red Lead, and every variety of Paints, and offer them dry and ground in oil. Likewise Varnishes, Putty, &c. April-ly

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Fire and Water-Proof, costs \$3 to \$4 per hundred square feet. Plantation rights and special rights for sale at fixed prices. Apply, inclosing stamp, to J. M. LEGARE, *Patentee*, Aiken, South Carolina.

 *Infringements of this Patent will be prosecuted by the Proprietor.* May-

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For health, no mountain retreats can be safer, *at any season of the year*. It is exempt from disease in August, and September, and October, as in April, May, or June. Indeed, the first three are infinitely the most pleasant of the season. The weather is milder, the sea breeze balmier, and the luxuries of the salt water are to be had of finer quality, and in great profusion. There is no more inviting spot on the whole Atlantic seaboard.

The visitors may safely seek its attraction at *all* seasons of the year. I submit the following letter of Dr. Archer. My own experience and observation for more than thirty years past, are to the same effect. JOS. SEGAR, *Proprietor.*

RICHMOND, August 7, 1856,

MY DEAR SIR: Your favor requesting my opinion as to the general healthiness of Old Point Comfort, is received, and I hasten to reply.

I resided at Old Point, as Post Surgeon and as Physician, upwards of twenty years, and I have no hesitation in saying, that there are few, if any localities in the United States, more healthy at all seasons of the year.

I know of no place more exempt from bilious diseases, and I have never known a case of intermittent fever to originate there.

In fine, I consider visitors from any climate as safe from disease, at Old Point Comfort, during the autumn months, as they would be in the mountains; or any where at the North.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant.

JOSÉPH SEGAR, Esq., *Old Point Comfort.* (may)

E. ARCHER.

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GUN MATERIAL, of all descriptions, ENGLISH, FRENCH, AND AMERICAN

COLT'S AND ALLEN'S REVOLVERS, PERCUSSION CAPS,

POWDER FLASKS, GUN WADDING,

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Together with a great variety of articles for SPORTSMEN'S USE, to which the city and country trade is particularly invited.

Depot for Fire-arms, &c. Manufactured by ALLEN & WHEELOCK.

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For Fresh Fruit, Brandy Fruit, Pickles, Poultry, Meats, Sauces, Catsups, Sauer Kraut, Oysters, &c., at the lowest prices.

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CASTINGS IN IRON AND BRASS.

We also manufacture a Patent Machine for Flowing and Draining Rice and Sugar Lands, the cheapest and best machines known, and the performance guaranteed.

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WINDOW CORNICES, ROOM MOULDINGS, &c.
Old Frames regilt equal to new.

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AT THE SIGN OF
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Has constantly on hand a general assortment of the following goods, for sale at as low prices as can be obtained in the city. Military goods. Looking-glasses, Picture frames. Looking-glass Plates of all sizes fitted to frames. Gilding and regilding. Spectacles to suit all ages and sights. Pebbles and perisopic glasses fitted to frames. Surveyor's Instruments, Thermometers, Barometers, Telescopes and Microscopes; also, a choice collection of Engravings, which will be offered at low cash prices.

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No. 177 East Bay, Charleston, S. C., opposite the Building of the New Custom House, one door from S. S. Farrar & Bro's.

The subscriber would invite the attention of Merchants and Planters, visiting this city, to his Stock of BOOTS AND SHOES, which will be sold at the lowest Manufacturer's price.

apr-1y

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223 King st., Charleston, S. C.
Dealer in Curtain goods, Window Shade, Paper Hangings; also, agent for Grover & Baker's Sewing Machine.

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T. M. BRISTOLL,
FASHIONABLE
BOOT, SHOE, AND TRUNK STORE,
(Sign of the Mammoth Boot.)

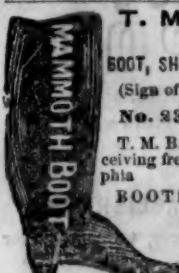
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Books bound in all varieties of style, from the plainest to those more richly gilt and ornamented Editions of Books bound in Embossed Muslin, plain or gilt.

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Diamonds and other precious stones reset;
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They caution purchasers of Tickets to beware of ordering Tickets in Lotteries where extraordinary large Capitals are offered for a small cost of Tickets—all such are swindles.

The Maryland Lotteries have been in existence for Forty Years. They are drawn by a State Officer, and can be relied on. If you draw a Prize, you will get your money. The whole country is flooded with Bogus Lottery concerns. Beware of them!

Order in the Maryland State Lotteries.

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MARYLAND STATE LOTTERY, CLASS L.

To be drawn in Baltimore City, July 24th, 1858.

14 drawn ballots in each package of 26 tickets.

Making more Prizes than Blanks.—Every Package of 26 tickets must contain 14 drawn numbers, so that there are 14 prizes to 12 Blanks.

1 Grand Prize.....	\$40,000	1 Prize of.....	\$3,000
1 Prize of.....	10,577	4 Prizes of.....	2,000
1 Prize of.....	10,000	10 Prizes of.....	1,249
1 Prize of.....	10,000	10 Prizes of.....	500
1 Prize of.....	10,000	10 Prizes of.....	300
1 Prize of.....	6,000	317 Prizes of.....	150
1 Prize of.....	6,000	64 Prizes of.....	100
1 Prize of.....	6,000	64 Prizes of.....	80
1 Prize of.....	6,000	64 Prizes of.....	40
1 Prize of.....	3,000	5,632 Prizes of.....	20
1 Prize of.....	3,000	28,224 Prizes of.....	10
24,412 Prizes,	amounting to.....		\$601,000
	Tickets \$10, Halves \$5, Quarters \$2.50, Eighths \$1.25.		
A Certificate of Package of 26 Wholes, costs.....			\$141.00
Do do 26 Halves,.....			70 50
Do do 26 Quarters,.....			35 25
Do do 26 Eighths,.....			17 62

HAVANA PLAN.

This is the old mode of drawing. Prizes in one wheel, and Tickets in another. Every Prize is drawn out. Prizes paid in full, without any Deduction.

MARYLAND STATE LOTTERY.—EXTRA CLASS S,

To be drawn in Baltimore, Md., Saturday, July 31st, 1858.

20,165 Prizes! 40,000 Numbers!!

We would call particular attention to the following splendid scheme, a package of 16 whole tickets costing only \$80—and every other ticket being warranted to draw \$10, determined by the number drawing the Capital Prize, whether odd or even.

SCHEME.

1 Prize of.....	\$35,000	4 Approximation to.....	\$200
1 Prize of.....	10,000	4 " "	100
1 Prize of.....	5,000	4 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	2,400	4 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	2,000	4 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	1,000	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	1,000	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	500	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	500	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	400	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	400	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	200	8 " "	50
1 Prize of.....	200	8 " "	50
100 Prizes of.....	100 are		10,000
20,000 Prizes of.....	10 are		200,000

Whole Tickets \$10; Halves \$5; Quarters \$2.50.

A Managers' Certificate of 16 Wholes—where persons wish to pay the risk only, will be sent for.....

Do	do	16 Halves.....	\$50
Do	do	16 Quarters.....	20
Do	do	16 Eighths.....	10

The Managers have been compelled, from the numerous complaints made to them of unfaithfulness on the part of those who have been attending to the filling of orders, to resume the correspondence business and in their own name.

Order Tickets from the Managers only.

Address all letters to R. FRANCE & CO., Baltimore, Md.

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June—8m

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Glenn & Co., would respectfully inform dealers that they can always find at their establishment, a very large assortment of goods in their line; and would assure dealers in them that all articles sold by them are manufactured of the purest ingredients, and by none but the most skilful and experienced workmen.

June—1y

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June—1y

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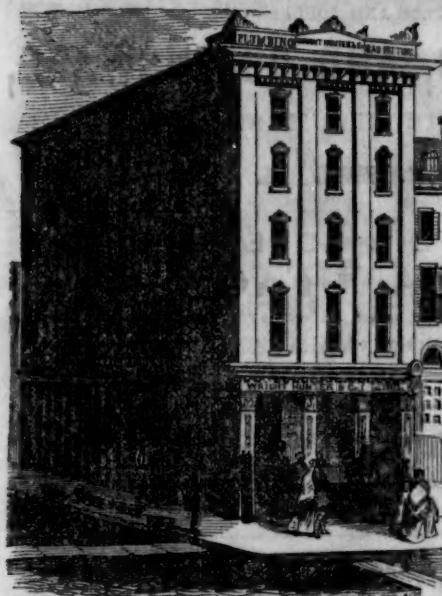
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OMNIBUSES will be at the Cars and Boats to convey Passengers, *free of charge*, with
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REESE'S MANIPULATED OR PHOSPHO-PERUVIAN GUANO.

Warranted to contain, in all cases, 8 per cent. Ammonia and 45 to 50 per cent. Phosphate of Lime, in minutely pulverized condition.

Having heretofore published minute accounts of the above guano, we deem it unnecessary here to enter into further detail, but refer those wishing further information to an essay in pamphlet form, which may be had, free of postage, on application by mail to the undersigned. The essay embraces an argument demonstrating the truth of its theory, with an undisguised account of its production.

The whole history of the use of Peruvian Guano shows it to contain an excess of Ammonia, and a deficiency of Phosphate of Lime, from which arises its over stimulating effect, and its want of permanency and tendency to depreciate the soil. These facts we think we have demonstrated in the pamphlet referred to above. This defect we have remedied in the above article, by reducing the Ammonia, and increasing the Phosphates to nearly or quite double the quantity in Peruvian Guano, as imported; thereby affording an article, at a less price, which cannot fail to permanently increase the fertility of the soil, and which the concurrent and uniform experience of the best farmers of this and adjoining States proves to be, in every case known to us, fully equal to Peruvian in its effect upon the first crop. A theory sustained by sound reasoning and legitimate inferences from established facts, must at least command the respect of an intelligent public; but when, in addition to this, it is sustained by uniform and concurrent testimony, the result of the experience of reliable parties, it amounts to a demonstration of its truth. The only question that can arise with the consumer, is one which is occasioned by the variation in quality and consequent uncertainty in the effects of all artificial fertilizers, which has given rise to a just prejudice against all articles of that class. The question is, will this article be kept to its standard? Will it not be allowed to depreciate? Will it not vary in quality? To these questions we reply, that our article is not artificial, it is not manufactured, it is the natural guano; hence, any variation in its quality could not be the result of accident from manufacturing processes. A variation or depreciation could only be the result of intention on our part. Now we can only assure the public that the production of this article is not intrusted to employees, but is personally controlled and superintended by ourselves, and that the guanos used are first analyzed by the State Inspector, and that we shall not allow it to depart from its present standard under any circumstances; and we at all times invite the most rigid examination or analysis to disprove our representations.

The advantages we claim for this article over Peruvian Guano, and all other fertilizers, are briefly the following: 1st. It is equal to Peruvian on the first crop. 2d. The product of grain will be better developed and heavier, because it affords an abundance of the element which forms the grain, (Phosphate of Lime,) which is not the case with Peruvian. 3d. It is far more permanent in effect, because it contains nearly double the quantity of Phosphate of Lime. 4th. Being in a finely pulverized condition, and free from lumps, a uniform distribution may be made over a field. 5th. There is no loss from lumps, every particle being available, and it requires no preparation by pounding, sieving, &c., to render it fit for use. 6th. It is superior to all manufactured articles, because it contains more Ammonia, and more Phosphates, and is the natural guano. 7th. It is cheaper!

The article is put in strong bags of convenient size, and sold by the ton of 2,000 lbs. Its price will vary with that of Peruvian and the Phosphate Guanos.

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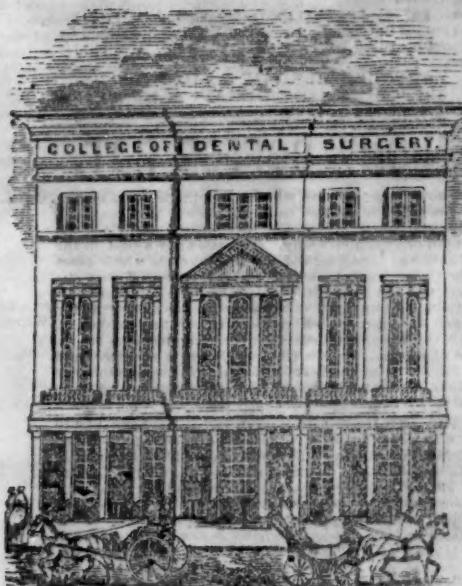
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July 1

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SAMUEL HENRY BEARD, South Carolina, *Origin and Development of the Teeth*.

ARMAND FRANCIS BIGNON, M. D., Georgia, *New Method of Mounting continuous gum work*.

JUAN NEPOMUCENO BOZA, Cuba, *Preservation of the Natural Teeth*.

CARVER WILLIS BROWN, Virginia, *Inflammation*.

CHARLES WM. CADDEN, M. D., Maryland, *Odontalgia*.

ALONZO LUCIUS CARTER, M. D., Switzerland, *Pseudoplasmodia*.

HENRY CLARKE, Maryland, *Dental Curies*.

LUIS MAGIN DIAZ, Cuba, *Anatomy of the Mouth*.

JOSEPH SMITH DODGE, Jr., M. D., New York, *Dental Histology*.

NATH. HEYWARD GIBBES, M. D., South Carolina, *Curies*.

EDWARD DANIEL HAMNER, Virginia, *Progress of Dental Science*.

MIDDLETON STUART HANCKEL, M. D., South Carolina, *Curies of the Teeth*.

THOMAS OLIVER HILLS, District of Columbia, *Adhesive Gold Foil*.

CORNELIUS SEARLE HURLBUT, Massachusetts, *Filling Teeth with Adhesive Foil*.

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The following States (through their Superintendents of Public Instruction) have given their OFFICIAL SANCTION to the following School-books, as the best adapted to their various schools:

STATE OF MICHIGAN.

This State was among the first whose Superintendent recommended a uniform series of Text-Books for their schools; and the following were among the books selected by the Hon. Francis Sherman, in 1852, then Superintendent of Michigan, which have become the *uniform standard* throughout the State, and highly recommended by a host of teachers who are now using them:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Clark's New English Grammar.
- Willard's History of the United States.
- Willard's Universal History.
- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping.
- Parker's Compendium of Natural Philosophy.
- Parker's Juvenile Philosophy, Nos. 1 and 2.
- Parker's Rhetorical Reader.

STATE OF WISCONSIN.

Hon. A. C. Barry, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Wisconsin, in a letter to the publishers, January 20, 1856, announced that he had recommended the following books for the schools of the State, viz:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Parker's Juvenile Philosophy, Nos. 1 and 2.
- Parker's Compendium of Natural Philosophy.
- Clark's New English Grammar.
- Brookfield's First Book in Composition.
- Parker's Word-BUILDER.
- Welch's Analysis of the English Sentence.
- Day's Art of Rhetoric.
- Wright's Analytical Orthography.
- Northend's Dictation Exercises.
- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping and Blanks.
- Monteith's First Lessons in Geography.
- Monteith's Manual of Geography.
- McNally's Complete School Geography.

In his official circular, however, he has (for some unknown reason) omitted the Geographies and Arithmetics, and added to his list—

- Willard's School History of the United States.
- Willard's Larger History of the United States.
- Willard's Universal History.

STATE OF ILLINOIS.

Hon. N. W. Edwards, the late Superintendent of this State, adopted a uniform series of school-books, and recommended them to be used in all the schools of the State. They have already become the favorite series, and are now extensively used. Among them are the following:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Parker's Compendium of Natural Philosophy.
- Parker's Juvenile Philosophy, Nos. 1 and 2.
- Clark's New English Grammar.
- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping.
- Fulton & Eastman's Copy Books.
- Day's Art of Rhetoric.
- Northend's Dictation Exercises.
- * Monteith's Geographies.
- Chambers' Introduction to the Sciences.

STATE OF INDIANA.

The Superintendent of Indiana, Hon. W. C. Larrabee, issued his circular in 1858, recommending the following books for the schools of that State:

- Davies' Mathematical Works (in part.)

- Parker's Natural Philosophy.

- Willard's History of the United States.

- Willard's Universal History.

- Martin's Orthopist.

- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping and Blanks.

The successor of Mr. Larrabee, (the Hon. Caleb Mills,) in his last report, in 1857, recommended, in addition to the above books, the National Geographical Series in place of—

- Monteith's First Lessons in Geography.

- Monteith's Manual of Geography.

- McNally's Complete School Geography. Also,

- Smith's Juvenile Definer.

* McNally's Geography, No. 3, of the "National Geographical Series," was published subsequent to Mr. Edwards' circular.

The action of the above-mentioned Superintendents of Education of the *National Series of Standard School Books*.

THE ABOVE WORKS ARE PUBLISHED BY A. S. BARNES & CO., NEW YORK. July-11

STATE OF MISSOURI.

Hon. W. B. Stark, the recently elected Superintendent of Public Instruction of this State, has issued the following circular:

"CITY OF JEFFERSON, March 4, 1857.

"Being convinced that a uniform series of Text-books is essential to the successful development of our common school system, and having examined the following works, heretofore recommended by my predecessors, I feel no hesitation in recommending their continued use in the common schools of our State, and I do hereby recommend them to the teachers and patrons of the common schools in the State of Missouri.

"W. B. STARK,
Superintendent of Common Schools, Missouri."

The following are among the books recommended:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Price's English Speller.
- Parker's Series of Readers, (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.)
- Parker's Word-BUILDER.
- Monteith's First Lessons in Geography.
- Monteith's Manual of Geography.
- McNally's Complete School Geography.
- Northend's Dictation Exercises.
- Brookfield's First Book in Composition.
- Northend and Zachos' Speakers and Dialogues.
- Willard's School History of the United States.
- Willard's Universal History.
- Clark's First Lessons in English Grammar.
- Clark's New English Grammar.
- Parker's Juvenile Philosophy, Nos. 1 and 2.
- Parker's Compendium of Natural Philosophy.
- Porter's Principles of Chemistry.
- Mahan's Intellectual Philosophy.
- Chambers' Introduction to the Sciences.
- McIntyre's Astronomy and Study of the Globe.

MINNESOTA TERRITORY.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction of this infant Territory has recommended the following school-books:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Parker's Natural Philosophy.
- Willard's School Histories.
- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping.

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA.

The Superintendent of this State (Hon. C. H. Wiley) has recommended the following books for the schools of his State, and urges *uniformity* in all the schools:

- North Carolina Series of Readers, Nos. 1, 2, and 3.
- Davies' Series of Arithmetics Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4.
- Monteith & McNally's Series of Geographies.
- Fulton & Eastman's Book-keeping and Blanks.
- Fulton & Eastman's Series of Copy Books.
- Parker's Natural Philosophy, Parts 1, 2, and 3.
- Willard's School History of the United States.

STATE OF ALABAMA.

The Superintendent of this State (Hon. W. F. Perry) has recommended a few books for the schools of this State. Among them are the following:

- Davies' Series of Arithmetics and Mathematics.
- Willard's School Histories.
- Monteith's Geographies.
- (List of Books not yet completed.)

STATE OF OHIO.

The Superintendent of this State has never issued an official circular recommending any particular series of school-books. The numerous counties in this State, however, have taken the matter into their own hands, and many have adopted a *uniform series* by action of county and town boards. Among the books adopted are many from the National Series. The same course is pursued by New York, Pennsylvania, and most of the New England States.

Common Schools is a fair exhibit of the character and circulation of the *National Series of Standard School Books*.

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JOSEPH SEGAR PROPRIETOR.

The following interesting letter in regard to this now popular resort, compares its advantages with those of similar character in our own country and in Europe. It was addressed to the National Intelligencer by the Hon. A Dudley Mann, a gentleman of large experience and extensive travel. The Editor of this Review cheerfully adds his own testimonials to those of Mr. Mann.

OLD POINT COMFORT, September, 1857.

GENTLEMEN: Having just enjoyed the invigorating bath at this favorite resort for the sixty-first and last time during the present season, I shall proceed homeward this afternoon in as perfect health as ever mortal enjoyed.

I have been for the last fifteen years an occasional visitor at the more distinguished watering places in Europe, and prior to my going abroad I repeatedly sojourned for a week or two in mid-summer at Newport, Nahant, and Saratoga; but I never quitted the sea-side or the mineral springs so reluctantly as I quit this time-honored historical spot—the virtues of whose baths and genial atmosphere have endeared it to me by new, indissoluble bonds. Willingly would I prolong my stay until the middle of October if my engagements did not command my presence at home. I can well imagine how delightful September must be in such a climate, with such a gentle invigorating sea breeze as generally prevails. Of the ordinary tropical diseases there are none, while there is a total absence of the bleak winds of the North, which drive the health and pleasure seeking world in that quarter from the sea-shore at the latest by this time.

Old Point Comfort assuredly has a brilliant future. I believe that it is destined, and at no distant day, to become the most attractive resort for seekers after health and pleasure in the Union. The home-leaving Southerners will repair to it by thousands in summer, and early autumn, as also many Northerners, when they become familiar with the excellence of its properties. May it be careful not to depart from the refined, elegant simplicity of manner by which its social intercourse is distinguished!

Since my arrival here in June, I understand that the number of visitors has amounted to about 5,000. Nearly all of them are now in the mountains. In regard to the time of visiting our watering places we differ materially from the inhabitants of other countries. The season of recreation in Europe terminates at Ostend or Boulogne, instead of at Baden-Baden or Hamburg. This is the better habit, as it tends to secure a sufficient amount of health to carry the visitor safely over to another summer. Medical men will generally recommend that the system be purified by the medicinal properties of the mineral fountain first, and then fortified by the salt bath and the bracing breeze from the broad Atlantic. If this recommendation were adopted, Old Point Comfort would not be abandoned at the very period its atmosphere becomes most delightful, and its salt-water delicacies have attained perfection.

The region around the Point is as healthy as any in America, and even Norfolk is remarkable for its freedom from disease. If good quarantine regulations had existed, her terrible afflictions of 1853 had doubtless never been experienced. It was the infectious malaria conveyed by the Franklin which caused her temporary devastation. Philadelphia or New York would have suffered similarly under like influences.

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MARYLAND.**

The Trustees of the Patapsco Female Institute announce to the public that the additional buildings and improvements commenced by them a year ago, in accordance with the subjoined resolutions, are now complete. These improvements have not been made with a view to increase the school, but for the greater convenience and comfort of the usual number of pupils.

The new chapel is a handsome and most appropriate structure, for the exclusive use of the inmates of the Institute, and in all its arrangements it is most complete. It is furnished with a new organ of fine construction and excellent tone.

The administration of Mr. Archer for the past year and the present has been attended with unprecedented success, and the Trustees feel themselves fully justified in recommending the Institute to the continued favor of the South.

It has pre-eminence in healthfulness. The pupils avoiding, on the one hand, the debilitating effects of a Southern climate, and on the other the rigors of the North, have few of the interruptions incident to both these climates.

It is sufficiently near to the city of Baltimore to enjoy the benefits of a city without any of its evils.

As an Institution of learning it has the advantage of a full organization, a resident chaplain, and a corps of accomplished teachers and professors, called together from time to time in the long experience of those having charge of the Institute.

The Trustees of the Patapsco Female Institute, having been duly notified by Mrs. Lincoln Phelps of her intention to resign her office of principal at the close of the present school year, have elected ROBERT H. ARCHER, Esq., as her successor. The eminent success of Mr. Archer in conducting for many years a School for Young Ladies in the city of Baltimore, entitles him to our confidence as a person peculiarly qualified to maintain the present high standing and insure the permanent prosperity of the Institution; and with this view we are engaged in the erection of another building in addition to the present extensive accommodations of the Institute.

CHAS. W. DORSEY, President. WM. DENNY, M. D., Secretary. T. WATKINS
LIGON, E. HAMMOND, JOHN P. KENNEDY.

June-1

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No arsenic, quinine, nor poison of any kind used
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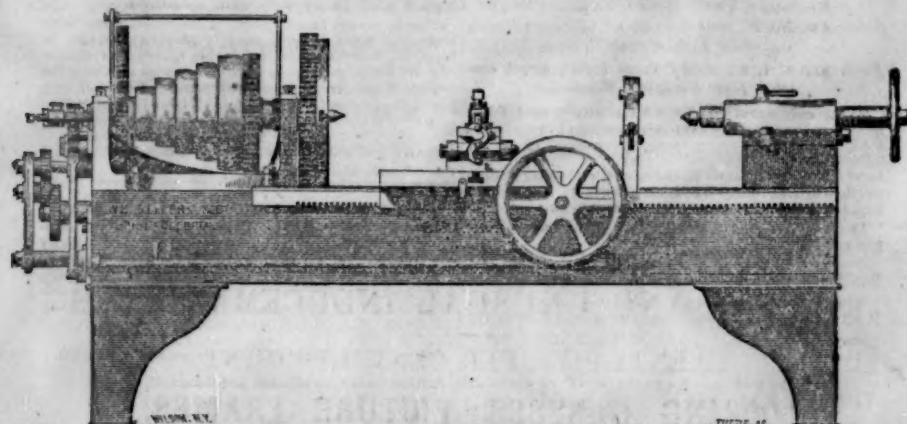
DEAR SIR:—We have carefully examined the sample of "Chesnut Grove Whiskey," left with us a few days since, and find it to contain little or none of the poisonous substance known as fusil oil.

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April 1



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20,000 pounds Pure White Lead.

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4,000 pounds French Snow White Zinc.

30 casks French Yellow Ochre.

8 barrels Copal Varnish.

6 barrels White Damar Varnish.

3 barrels Japan Varnish.

2 barrels Coach Varnish.

Together with all the various colors, dry and in oil. All of which will be sold at the very
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Those who are building Fine Houses are recommended to examine the first quality of French
Glass, which is nearly equal to American Crown Glass, and at half the price. I import this
article direct from one of the Largest Manufactories in Europe.

THE GREAT COUGH REMEDY,
CHERRY EXPECTORANT.

The following original letter was handed to us for publication. A remedy which can elicit
such encomiums, must be a good one:

Dr. O. O. Woodman, New Orleans:

GALVESTON, TEXAS, April 25, 1854.

My Dear Sir: In justice to you and a duty I owe to a suffering, and, I may say, a world of
coughing people, I state what your invaluable Cough Remedy—your Cherry Expectorant—
has done for me, when all other remedies have failed to give any relief. In the fall of 1847,
living in St. Louis, where I have resided most of the time for the last sixteen years, I took a
severe cold which settled on my lungs, and was confined to my bed, and dosed and blistered
by doctors for several weeks, but finally got on my legs again, but not cured of my hard
coughing, and rattling and tickling in my throat, which continued incessantly for more than
six months, always the worst in the winter. My friends insisted I had coughed enough to kill
a dozen common men, and that I must be in the last stages of consumption. I made up my
mind I must cough my life away. I left St. Louis in December last to travel and spend the
winter in the South. When I called at your store in Vicksburg, you will recollect, I was
coughing so hard I could not talk to make my business known. You said that you would cure
my cough. As you gave me a bottle of your Cherry Expectorant, I thought I would not
slight you and your medicine so much as not to try it; and in thankfulness shall I ever re-
member the day I did so. In but a few days it began to allay and diminish my cough and all
tickling in my throat; and before I had used more than three-fourths of the contents of that
bottle, I was entirely cured, and for weeks I did not even raise a cough, though exposed day
and night, in all weathers, in travelling. However, in March, while travelling in North Caro-
lina, I took a severe cold, and my coughing commenced again, and also the tickling in my
throat, at intervals; and before my arriving in New Orleans, on the 12th inst., on some nights
my coughing would commence and continue for an hour or two. I soon procured another bot-
tle from you, and in less than two days I was entirely relieved again. I am now determined
to always keep a bottle on hand, and in the commencing of a cough, a very few small doses
will relieve it entirely. I am now fully satisfied it is the best Cough Remedy now known to
the world; and it is a duty you owe to the coughing and afflicted part of the human family,
to put so valuable a remedy within the reach of all. Its praise will soon be upon the tongues
of tens of thousands of joyful and coughless happy souls. So great a remedy as your Ex-
pectorant should be brought before the public.

I am, dear sir, respectfully yours, R. J. WOODWARD, of St. Louis, Missouri.

O. J. WOOD & CO., WHOLESALE AGENTS, ST. LOUIS,

And for sale by all Druggists in the South and Western States.

O. O. WOODMAN,

Corner of Common and Magazine Streets, Sole Proprietor.

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

Prospectus of De Bow's Review,

S. S., VOL. XXV.—NEW SERIES, VOL. 1.

ADAPTED PRIMARILY TO THE SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES OF THE UNION.
EXCLUDING STATISTICS OF FEDERAL AND DOMESTIC EXPENSES AND EXPENDITURES,
PUBLISHED MONTHLY IN NEW ORLEANS AND WASHINGTON CITY.

Terms, \$5 per annum, in advance.

50c Postage, Two Cents a Number, if Prepaid Quarterly.

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To Subscribers.—If our subscribers will follow a few plain rules, accounts between us will be but little kept than formerly.

1. Note the Receipts on the cover, and if your name does not appear in two months after payment is made, inform the office at Washington of the fact, and how the payment was made. (Notify the office when a number has failed to come to hand.)

2. Name written for agents. When you pay an agent, be sure that his credentials are right.

3. If you write to the office, give the name of the office to which your Review is sent; and if not discount time, give the notice of three months which is required, and *pay up all arrears*. Should numbers afterwards come to hand, see that they are returned by the next mail.

To Postmasters.—The moment a Review is received at your office, give notice at the law require, or return the number with explanations. This is earnestly requested from all.

Our traveling agents are: James Dunning, E. W. Wiley, Israel E. Jones, and C. W. Jaques, (with whom acting under them,) Prof. Stetson will make a general R. riding tour, and is warmly recommended to all of our subscribers. T. Wash. Smith, and W. H. Clark, agents.

PAYMENTS SINCE last JUNE.

Alabama.—July, 1858—D. Stodder, J. Elder, \$12; L. P. Stone, \$12; J. Beaumont, \$15; A. M. See-
land, \$12; W. H. Richardson, J. H. Jenkins, \$12; J. L. G. Hussey, \$12; W. C. Webb, March, 1858—A. Knapp,
J. McNeilly, \$12; W. H. Thompson, \$12; S. L. Cole, \$12; J. W. Robins, \$12; January, 1859—
A. R. Manning, \$15; J. O'Curry, \$10; N. Ayres, J. F. Glancy, \$10; Jas. J. Thompson, January, 1859—
McClure & Thomas, \$10; Hon. J. G. Shorter, \$10; W. B. Cooper, M. McDonald, D. C. Williams, \$10; July,
1859—A. J. Houston, \$10; December, 1858—Hon. J. F. McDonald, \$10; August, 1859—H. H. Xerox, \$10;
July, 1859—B. S. Griffin, May, 1859—T. M. Gilmer, Jr.; June, 1859—Atherton Bass.

Literary of Louisiana.—January, 1859—Col. Wren.

Toronto.—July, 1858—E. Z. Jones, \$10; July, 1858—J. W. Wright.

Georgia.—July, 1858—W. B. Walker, \$10; A. Duquanter, Dr. E. W. Walker, Dr. P. H. Knapp, \$10; J.
Newwood, A. Mouton, & W. Tucker, January, 1859—Dr. F. C. Baker.

Mississippi.—July, 1858—J. Johnson, \$15; January, 1859—Jas. Morell, \$10; December, 1858—H. W.
Walker, \$15; January, 1859—Hon. J. V. Clapp, J. W. Loudon, \$10.

Alaska.—January, 1859—Hon. F. Moore.

Missouri.—January, 1859—N. Valle, G. A. Appleton, N. J. Eaton, Roberts, Kerr & Co., D. A. January,
Thos. C. Reynolds, Mercantile Library Association, Wm. A. Magdalene, July, 1859—W. H. Brown, June,
1859—Chamber of Commerce, Wm. H. Belcher, G. W. Goods.

New Jersey.—July, 1859—J. B. Becker.

North Carolina.—January, 1859—Athensian, May, 1859—J. B. Davis, Dr. Charles J. Ross, E. Schuyler,
W. Johnston, W. F. Phifer, Maj. J. H. Caldwell, Gen. S. H. Walkup, Dr. A. Caldwell, July, 1859—Jno Shillay.

New York.—July, 1859—T. A. Wetmore, Adm'r. S. Hawkinson, R. J. Howland, T. A. Emmett, Dr. Connel
& Co., J. A. Atayne, T. Cottrell, New York Society Library, Keene & Lockwood, Chas. Nelson, New York
Union Club, Croton, Hudson & Son, January, 1859—See Mutual Insurance Company, Jas. Halevy,
Rich'd Irwin, J. H. Bowes, T. McDonald, January, 1859—Phelps & Kingman, November, 1859—W. H.
Pan, May, 1859—J. T. Midway.

South Carolina.—June, 1859—Col. T. B. Heyward, \$10; May, 1859—Col. S. H. Willis, Col. E. W. Charles,
Thos. P. Lide, Dr. Jas. P. Zimmerman, Gen'l J. S. Neill, E. J. Lide, Dr. W. A. Player, G. C. Law, J. H. Nor-
wood, S. August, Law, Dr. S. H. Prentiss, June, 1859—Jas. E. Wingate, J. B. Douglas, N. C. Mulligan, Thos.
Evans, Gen'l Wm. Evans, Dr. Jas. C. Mulligan, Col. N. Phillips, A. Q. McDowell, Natl. Evans, C. B. Brown, Dr.
J. W. Biggert, J. J. Williamson, Maj. S. F. Gibson, W. W. Soden, Jas. Ferguson, J. J. Griggs, Dr. R. Hartke,
Dr. M. Reynolds, H. Biggert, H. Cameron, B. H. Umphrey, Maj. J. N. McMurphy, A. H. Douglas, Dr. W. B.
Johnson, Dr. Theo Smith, J. B. Ridd, July, 1859—Col. L. J. Patterson, \$15; Erie Library, \$25; January,
1859—N. S. Harris, F. M. Ragen, July, 1859—Dr. Theo. B. Kennedy, \$10; Jas. Jenkins, G. Bailey, Ed.
Barnard, E. C. Bailey, Maj. W. M. Murray, Dr. Theo. McMurphy, Col. E. H. Whaley, Wm. Seabrook, Jr., June,
1859—Dr. R. Marks.

Texas.—April, 1859—Stephen Perry, \$10; E. A. Pearson, \$15; W. R. Thomas, \$10, October, 1858—J.
McCarthy, \$10; January, 1859—T. C. Nail, \$10; Jas. Caldwell, \$10; Jas. Stanley, W. P. S. Alexander, \$10;
January, 1859—H. C. Green, \$10; E. M. Sanford, \$10; O. L. Ball, W. B. Wilson, \$10; W. L. Johnson,
July, 1859—A. Shepherd, \$10; J. C. Thomas, \$17.50; J. G. Johns, \$10; C. K. Hall, \$10; Labbeck & Fin-
ney, \$7.50; J. A. Hayne, \$15; Jas. H. Raymond, Jas. Swisher, Gov. E. Johnson, \$7.50; W. P. De No-
mandy, \$1; Jas. H. Towne, Dr. G. T. Boardman, \$10; Jas. Bremond, H. F. Hunter, \$10; July, 1857—
A. S. Lincomb, April, 1859—M. F. Demaret, May, 1859—Gov. E. M. Pease, \$15.67; January, 1854—
Jas. Advance, Gen'l W. H. Woodward.

Virginia.—July, 1858—Dr. F. S. Danes.

Western States.—Jas. McNeilly, McCloud & Thomas, J. McNally, A. Beaufort, W. H. Richardson, J. P.
Carr, J. L. G. Hussey, J. W. Kowalewski, Col. L. J. Patterson, E. A. Pearson, U. R. Hall, J. A. Bayn;

LAW AND AGENCY NOTICE.

The subscriber has returned to the practice of his profession at Washington City and New Orleans.
Business at Washington in the Supreme Court, Court of Claims, or in any of the Bureaus or Departments
of the Government—Land, Penitentiary, and Patent Office, will be attended to by himself. Business for New
Orleans will receive the attention of his law offices, V. B. 109, Eng., of that city, and one of himself
during a portion of the year.

WASHINGTON, August, 1859.

J. D. B. DE BOW.